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Gender Role Change, Relationship Satisfaction, and Intimate Partner Violence Perpetration among Latino Men

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by

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DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my parents, Clara Spinel and Ismail Yildiz, who instilled in me the love of learning from an early age and raised me to stay curious and ask questions about the world. Thank you for raising me to believe I could do anything and be brave to do challenging things. I also want to thank the beautiful group of friends I met here in South Carolina, William Velez, Ana Gallego, Erika Rengifo, Yohanna Mejia, Tayrin Hurtado Salazar, Mabel Cuellar, and Juan Cruz, who shared love and support creating a home away from home for me during these years of graduate school.

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ABSTRACT

Intimate partner violence (IPV) is defined as physical, sexual, or psychological violence or aggression by a current or previous partner or spouse. Articles on IPV among Latinxs often speculate that Latinx gender role attitudes, such as *marianismo, caballerismo,* or *machismo,* cause IPV among Latinxs. Traditional *machismo* is the belief that men should be controlling and dominant. *Caballerismo* is the idea that men should protect their families. *Marianismo* is the belief that women should be submissive, virtuous and chaste, and self-sacrificing for their families. However, most research on IPV has failed to actually measure Latinx gender role attitudes (Sabina, 2016; Klevens, 2007). The overall objective of this study was to examine a culturally informed model of a mechanism that accounts for the association between gender role attitudes and risk of Latino men perpetrating IPV. The central hypothesis of the current study was that men who report that their ideal female partner should embody more *Marianismo* and who report that their current female partner does not embody these characteristics (ideal-partner discrepancy) would be more likely to report IPV male perpetration. Additionally, this study hypothesized that men who report high discrepancies between their endorsement of *Machismo* and perceive that their female partner endorsement of *Machismo* is different from theirs (gender role discrepancy) would be more likely to report IPV male perpetration. Furthermore, high ideal-perceived partner discrepancy for *Marianismo* and higher gender role discrepancy for *Machismo* would be related to low relationship satisfaction, and lower levels of relationship satisfaction would be related to

higher rates of IPV perpetration; therefore, it was hypothesized that relationship satisfaction would function as a mediator between gender role discrepancies and IPV perpetration. Exploratory analyses were proposed for gender role discrepancy of *Caballerismo* and IPV perpetration and relationship satisfaction. Results showed that Latino men with higher ideal-current partner discrepancy for the *Marianismo* scales of Virtuous and Chaste and Subordinate to Others reported higher IPV perpetration, and this association was mediated by relationship satisfaction. Relationship satisfaction did not mediate the association between perceived discrepancy of *Machismo* and IPV perpetration. However, relationship satisfaction mediated the association between perceived discrepancy of *Caballerismo* and IPV perpetration.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Overview

IPV is defined as physical, sexual, or psychological harm by a current or previous partner or spouse (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC), 2017). Latinxs[1] report similar rates of IPV victimization as compared to Whites. Among Latina women, 37.1% report that they have experienced rape, physical violence, or stalking by an intimate partner in their lifetimes as compared to 34.6% of White non-Latina women, and 43.7% of non-Latina Black women (CDC, 2017). Currently, 54 million (or 17%) of the US population identifies as Hispanic or Latino (U.S. Census Bureau, 2018) and represent the largest ethnic or racial minority in the US. There are risk factors for IPV common across ethnic groups; however, for Latinxs, as an ethnic minority, there are other potential factors that influence IPV, such as various Latinx cultural values, and for some, experiences related to immigration. Therefore, studying unique risk and protective factors for IPV among Latinxs is important for developing better IPV prevention and interventions targeted for this population.

One factor that is often discussed as a risk factor for IPV among Latinxs is the endorsement of traditional Latinx gender role attitudes such as *marianismo* or *machismo*. *Machismo* is the traditional gender role for men, and it dictates that men should be

[1] In this document I use the term Latinx to refer to an individual whose gender is unknows. Latinxs for plural of a group/population that has individuals of multiple genders or whose gender is unknow. Latino(s) refers to men, and Latina(s) to refer to women.

controlling and dominant. Women's gender role is labeled *marianismo,* and it stipulates that women should be submissive, virtuous and chaste, selfless, religiously superior to men, and self-sacrificing for their families. However, most research on IPV has failed to actually measure Latinx gender role attitudes (Sabina, 2016; Klevens, 2007; Cummings et al., 2013); rather, studies tend to invoke Latinx gender roles in discussion sections as post hoc explanations for findings with this population.

Furthermore, most quantitative studies on gender role attitudes and IPV among Latinxs have focused on measuring one of the partners' gender role attitudes and how that relates to IPV victimization or perpetration. This approach misses contextual dynamics within the couple, such as the impact of discrepancies in partners' endorsement of gender role attitudes, which seems to increase relationship dissatisfaction and the risk of IPV. For example, qualitative studies have found that for Latinx immigrants, gender role changes in social roles in the household, such as when women start to work and become financially independent, lead to IPV instead of gender role attitudes per se (Klevens et al., 2007). Gender role discrepancy, specifically when women endorse less traditional views, and men endorse more traditional views, may lead to relationship dissatisfaction, which can escalate into IPV. For example, changes brought about by migration may lead to modifications in household roles; these gender role changes may lead to women gaining power as they become more financial independent, which may lead to changes in women's views of themselves, and to men using violence to maintain control (Klevens et al., 2007). Therefore, to gain a better understanding of how gender role attitudes are linked to IPV, this study incorporated measures of Latinx gender role attitudes to assess whether men perceive discrepancies between themselves and their

female partners regarding endorsement of these attitudes because this might be a critical predictor of IPV among Latinxs.

The overall objective of this study was to examine a culturally informed model of a mechanism that accounts for the link between gender role attitudes and risk of Latino men perpetrating IPV. **The central hypothesis was** that when men think that their ideal female partner should embody more traditional gender roles, but they perceive that their partner does not meet those expectations, they would report higher rates of male perpetration of IPV. Additionally, men who endorse more traditional gender role attitudes for themselves (*machismo*) and perceive that their female partners endorse less traditional gender role attitudes would also report higher rates of male perpetration of IPV. Furthermore, the discrepancy in the endorsement of traditional gender role attitudes (*machismo*) and the discrepancy between ideal and current female partner regarding compliance to traditional gender roles would be related to low relationship satisfaction, and lower levels of relationship satisfaction would be related to higher rates of IPV perpetration. Therefore, relationship satisfaction would function as a mediator of the association between gender role discrepancy and IPV perpetration, and between discrepancy between ideal and current female partner and IPV perpetration.

The significance of this study is that it builds on the research literature in the IPV area by proposing and examining a culturally informed feminist theory of IPV. Feminist theories conceptualize gender as a social construct that is influenced by culture (Lindsey, 2015). Unfortunately, most previous research on Latinxs and IPV has used tools developed mostly with White American samples (Miville et al., 2017). Therefore, the current study developed a more culturally informed perspective of gender by using

validated and culturally informed measures of traditional gender role attitudes. Thus, this study aimed to provide a more valid approach to assessing gender role attitudes for Latinx populations and to expand Feminist Theory to integrate specific cultural aspects important to the experiences of Latinxs.

Implications

The implication of this study is that the outcomes can inform the development and tailoring of interventions aimed to treat Latino men who engage in IPV. Ethnic minority men, including Latino men, are overrepresented in court-mandated groups for IPV perpetrators (Field & Caetano, 2005; Barner & Carney, 2011); however, the groups use a one size fit model based on treatments developed with White, upper- and middle-class populations, which may be ineffective (Bograd, 1999). There is almost no research comparing culturally adapted interventions to conventional treatment (i.e., CBT or the Duluth model) (Murphy & Ting, 2010). Thus, there is a big need to address culturally adapted treatment for Latino men; the results from this study might assist researchers' efforts to develop culturally adapted interventions by identifying mechanisms to target in prevention and treatment of IPV perpetration among Latino men.

Theoretical Background

Feminist Theory and IPV

Feminist theories postulate that oppression is the state of being subjected to unjust treatment and control. Within this framework, violence at home is based on the idea that it is acceptable for a more powerful individual to control others through forms of coercive violence (hooks, 2000). Men and women can endorse beliefs that a person in authority has the right to use force to maintain this authority. Thus, traditional gender role attitudes

that position men as having a superior or dominant role in the home can lead to acceptance of violence of men (Miville et al., 2013). In fact, IPV research shows that traditional gender role attitudes are linked to higher odds of male-to-female perpetration of IPV (Stith et al., 2004).

More contemporary approaches to studying gender conceptualize gender as functioning at three levels. First, gender functions at the individual level; this includes an individual's gender role attitudes (Anderson, 2005). Second, gender can also be conceptualized as a social interaction. In this view, people "do gender" and violence against women can be seen as performing concepts of masculinity such as "being in control" (Anderson, 2005). Third, gender can also be conceptualized as a structuralist force where gender influences social institutions, individuals, and their interactions (Anderson, 2005). This view of gender recognizes that men and women are put into unequal roles and have different access to resources in society. Therefore, to understand how gender influences the likelihood of Latino men using violence towards their partners, it is necessary to study gender at these different levels and how that relates to their experiences of IPV perpetration. For the current study, I focused on the first two levels; at the individual level by studying participants' gender role attitudes, and as a social interaction by exploring participants' use of violence in their intimate relationships as result of dissatisfaction with their partners and the relationship.

Measures of Gender Role Attitudes and IPV. In the field of IPV, researchers have utilized various conceptualizations and measures of gender role attitudes to study how these views are linked to violence in couples. Sugarman and Frankel (1996) conducted a meta-analysis assessing the evidence in the literature regarding the

connection between traditional gender role attitudes and use of physical violence in intimate relationships. The authors categorized "patriarchy ideology" into three different types, including attitudes toward violence against women, gender attitudes (attitudes toward gender roles and prescribed behaviors), and measures of gender schema. Results regarding men's perpetration of physical IPV show that higher scores in measures of acceptance of violence toward women were related to more IPV perpetration with a large effect (d = 0.71). Endorsement of more traditional gender attitudes was related to more IPV perpetration with a moderate effect (d = 0.54). Lastly, endorsement of masculinity traits had a small effect and was not in the predicted direction (higher scores were related to lower IPV perpetration) (d = -0.20).

Similarly to Sugarman and Frankel's (1996) findings, a meta-analysis assessing different measures of traditional gender role attitudes and men's sexual aggression found the two largest effects were for measures that combined acceptance of aggression against women and negative and hostile beliefs about women; thus, men who had high endorsement of these views reported more sexual aggression. The next strongest association concerned measures of agreement that men are dominant over women and measures of hostility toward women; men who endorsed these views were also more likely to engage in sexual aggression. General measures of gender schema (masculinity) adherence were not strong predictors of sexual aggression (Murnen et al., 2002). Thus, both meta-analyses indicate that gender role attitudes where participants condone violence towards women and hold hostile beliefs were strongly correlated with men's perpetration of IPV and sexual violence; gender attitudes had a moderate connection with men's violence towards women, and the extent to which men internalized stereotypically

masculine characteristics was not related to violence towards women. Therefore, these meta-analyses show that how traditional gender role attitudes are conceptualized and measured is important in understanding the connection between these constructs and violence.

Gender Role Attitudes and IPV among Latinxs. Most of the research conducted on gender role attitudes and IPV has been done with non-Latinx samples; most studies reviewed in these meta-analyses have predominantly White samples, and reviews of quantitative studies among Latinxs provide inconsistent results regarding the connection between traditional gender role attitudes and IPV (Klevens, 2007; Sabina, 2016). Some studies with Latinx samples have found positive associations between traditional gender role attitudes and IPV, some have found negative associations, and some have found no association. Regarding positive associations, one study found that endorsement of the heteronormative script (a combination of hostile views of gender and views of men as superior to women) was related to male and female perpetration and victimization of verbal sexual coercion (Eaton & Matamala, 2014). More traditional gender role attitudes regarding men as breadwinners and women as responsible for domestic roles was directly associated with higher psychological IPV perpetration by men (Falconier, 2013), and with higher female IPV physical victimization (Golden et al., 2013). A study with adolescents found that endorsement of traditional gender role attitudes (breadwinner vs. household roles) was associated with higher female and male fearful and aversive dating experiences (Ulloa et al., 2004). Lastly, the only longitudinal study identified by the author found that more endorsement of traditional gender role attitudes in adolescence was associated with psychological and physical IPV perpetration

in adulthood for men; however, there was no association between gender role attitudes in adolescence and perpetration or victimization of any type of IPV in adulthood for women (Grest et al., 2018).

In terms of negative associations between gender role attitudes and IPV, one study with mostly Latinx and African American college students found that higher endorsement of benevolent sexism (the view that men and women complement each other and men need to protect women) was associated with lower female victimization and male perpetration (Allen et al., 2009). Two studies with Latina women found that participants who endorsed more traditional gender role attitudes regarding the division of labor (breadwinner/household) reported lower female IPV victimization (these two studies used the same dataset) (Firestone et al., 2003; Harris et al., 2005). Lastly, one study found no association between hostile sexism and IPV victimization or perpetration (Allen et al., 2009), and another study found no association between the degree of endorsement of "feminine" or "masculine" stereotypical traits and female IPV victimization (Perilla et al., 1994).

Therefore, quantitative studies seem to suggest that higher endorsement of traditional gender role attitudes is related to higher male IPV perpetration or female IPV victimization among Latinxs; however, there are inconsistent results within the literature. Some studies found that endorsing more traditional gender role attitudes decreased the risk of female IPV victimization, and some results showed no associations between gender role attitudes and IPV. Given the variety of conceptualizations and measures used to assess traditional gender role attitudes and the limited number of studies on the subject

examining Latinx populations specifically, it is necessary to investigate further whether traditional gender role attitudes are linked to more IPV among Latinxs.

Furthermore, mixed results could be due to limitations in the conceptualization of gender role attitudes among Latinxs; for example, although gender is a cultural construct, most research on Latinxs in the field of psychology does not use measures of Latinx cultural views of gender (Miville et al., 2017). This lack of attention to Latinx gender role attitudes is likely because only in the past decade have researchers developed and validated questionnaires to assess culturally relevant gender role attitudes such as *machismo, caballerismo,* and *marianismo* (Miville et al., 2017). Studies of IPV with Latinxs often mention *machismo* and *marianismo* in the discussion section as causes and explanations of IPV (Sabina, 2016; Cummings et al., 2013; Mancera et al., 2017). However, few empirical studies have assessed these claims, and the results are mixed. Thus, indicating that IPV in Latinxs is caused by these "cultural" norms is based more on theoretical suppositions than strong empirical evidence. Also, researchers who have developed and validated the measures of *machismo, caballerismo,* and *marianismo* emphasize that these traditional expectations of men and women seem to be nuanced and multidimensional with potential negative and positive aspects (Miville et al., 2017). Thus, research on IPV could benefit from integrating Latinx cultural views of gender to use more culturally valid and relevant conceptualizations of gender role attitudes. Additionally, researchers should assess what facets of Latinx cultural views of gender may function as risk or protective factors against IPV to better inform interventions for this population.

Latinx Gender Role Attitudes Measures. Regarding gender role expectations for men in Latinx culture, Arciniegas et al. (2008) identified that *machismo* seems to have two facets: the negative aspect, being controlling and dominant, labeled as traditional *Machismo*[2]; and a positive aspect that includes having pride in the family and children and emphasizing social responsibility and emotional connectedness; this positive aspect is called *Caballerismo* (Arciniegas et al., 2008). Traditional *Machismo* tends to be associated with negative outcomes such as depressive symptoms and stress for Latino men (Fragoso & Kashubeck, 2000). In contrast, *Caballerismo* tends to be associated with positive outcomes such as higher relationship satisfaction, higher self-esteem, and lower risk of PTSD among Latino veterans (Ojeda & Piña-Watson, 2014; Herrera et al., 2013).

Regarding gender role expectations for women in Latinx culture, *marianismo* is the belief that women need to be chaste, submissive, modest, and the pillar of the spiritual life of the family. A validated measure to assess *marianismo* (the *Marianismo* Beliefs Scale) show that this concept is composed of five different subscales assessing the ideas that women are the Family Pillar, the Spiritual Pillar of the family, Virtuous and Chaste, Subordinate to Others, and Self-Silencing to maintain harmony (Castillo et al., 2010). Currently, work on *Marianismo* shows that it is not clear whether the endorsement of this gender role attitude is beneficial or detrimental for Latinas. Some studies have found that endorsement of *Marianismo* is associated with negative outcomes. For example, in a study of Mexican American college women, higher overall *Marianismo* was associated with higher depressive symptoms (Piña-Watson et al., 2013). However, studies show that

[2] In this text, I capitalize words such as *Machismo* when referring to scales, and I use lower case (machismo) to discuss the concept and construct broadly. For example, when referring to studies that used the measure developed by Arciniegas et al., (2008), I will use *Machismo.* I follow the same for *Caballerismo* the *Marianismo* Beliefs Scale.

some subscales of *Marianismo* are related to positive outcomes for Latinas, and other subscales are associated with negative outcomes. For Latina adolescents, the subscales of being Virtuous and Chaste and the Spiritual Pillar were positively related to stronger ethnic identity, and the subscales of being Subordinate to Others and Self-Silencing were associated with a lower sense of ethnic identity (Sanchez et al., 2017). In a sample of Latina college students, the subscale of being Subordinate to Others was related to disengagement coping (coping by focusing on emotions and not addressing the problem), and negatively related to mental health (e.g., less behavioral/emotional control and lower positive affect); and Self-Silencing was related to lower behavioral /emotional control (Sanchez et al., 2018). Thus, it seems that the subscales of Family Pillar and Spiritual Pillar function as positive factors (e.g., related to higher ethnic identity). Conversely, the subscales of Self-Silencing and being Subordinate to Others seem to be related to negative outcomes such as worse indicators of mental health.

The field of IPV research has just recently started to integrate measures of Latinx traditional gender role attitudes, with preliminary and limited studies. Only two studies have used culturally appropriate measures of gender role attitudes for Latinxs to examine the relationships between such attitudes and IPV. *Marianismo* has been conceptualized as a risk factor for experiencing IPV victimization because it might lead to more tolerance of male violence in the household (Mancera et al., 2017). However, a study among Latinx college students found that women's endorsement of the *Marianismo* subscales was not related to tolerance of dating violence, but a higher endorsement of *Machismo* was related to tolerance of dating violence. For men, a protective effect was found where male participants who thought that women should be Virtuous and Chaste reported lower

levels of tolerance for dating violence; men who endorsed higher levels of traditional *Machismo* were more tolerant of dating violence (Terrazas-Carrillo & Sabina, 2019). A different study found that women's endorsement of the subscales of *Marianismo* was not associated with self-reported IPV victimization; however, participants who scored higher on the subscales of Self-Silencing and Subordinate to Others reported more psychological distress after experiencing IPV than their peers with lower levels of those beliefs (Da Silva et al., 2018). Thus, the existing evidence does not seem to indicate that *Marianismo* is a risk factor for women's IPV victimization, although subscales of *Marianismo* may be related to other negative factors, such as greater distress after experiencing IPV. Rather, these studies indicate that men and women who endorsed more *Machismo* are more tolerant of dating violence and that women's endorsement of *Marianismo* does not increase their tolerance of dating violence or the risk of experiencing IPV. However, more studies using measures of Latinx gender role attitudes are needed to fully ascertain what subscales function as risk factors of IPV perpetration for Latino men.

Gender Role Discrepancy, Relationship Dissatisfaction, and IPV

Currently, most quantitative studies on gender role attitudes and IPV among Latinxs have focused on measuring one of the partners' gender role attitudes and how that relates to IPV victimization or perpetration. This method does not capture couple's processes, such as the impact of discrepancies in partners' endorsement of gender role attitudes, which seems to increase relationship dissatisfaction and the risk of IPV. Scholars have suggested that conflict and dissatisfaction due to changes in social roles in the couple may lead to IPV instead of gender role attitudes per se. Specifically, qualitative studies show that for Latinx immigrants, gender role changes in social roles in

the household, such as when women start to work and become financially independent may lead to IPV (Klevens et al., 2007). Consistent with this idea, a qualitative study with Mexican immigrants found that men and women reported that men's violent behavior followed the change in household roles due to women gaining employment (Grzywacz et al., 2009). Moreover, Latinas who earn more than their partners appear to be at greater risk of experiencing IPV (Perilla et al., 1994). Therefore, gender role discrepancy, specifically when women endorse less traditional views, and men endorse more traditional views, may lead to men's relationship dissatisfaction, which can escalate into men perpetrating IPV.

Relationship Dissatisfaction and IPV. There is evidence with non-Latinx samples that relationship dissatisfaction and marital discord are important factors associated with IPV among couples (Stith et al., 2008). Studies show that gender role discrepancies between partners may lead to decreased relationship satisfaction, potentially escalating into violence; unfortunately, most of this research has been done with non-Latinx samples. First, research with non-Latinxs shows that men who perceive a relationship power imbalance (Delsol & Margolin, 2004), and dissatisfaction in the amount of power in the relationship are more likely to perpetrate IPV (See the review by Mancera et al., 2017). Furthermore, two different meta-analyses show a small-to-moderate effect size of a positive association between relationship dissatisfaction and male perpetration of IPV (r = .28 and r =.29) (Stith et al., 2008). Moreover, studies with non-Latina women have found that women who value equal roles between partners are less satisfied in their marriages (Fowers 1991; Fowers & Olson 1989; Rosen-Grandon et al., 2004), and women whose attitudes over time become more egalitarian perceive a

decline in marital quality (Amato & Booth, 1995). Additionally, meta-analyses indicate that women who endorse less traditional gender attitudes are more likely to report physical IPV victimization (d = -0.36) (Sugarman & Frankel, 1996), and women who report lower levels of relationship satisfaction are also more likely to report IPV victimization (r = - .41) (Stith et al., 2008). Therefore, it seems that when women endorse less traditional gender role attitudes, they experience less satisfaction with the relationship and are at increased risk of experiencing IPV potentially due to men's attempts to regain control when they perceive that women are gaining more power in the relationship.

I was only able to find one study assessing the connection between gender role discrepancies and relationship dissatisfaction with a Latinx sample. In a sample of immigrant Latinx couples (men and women), Latino men's more traditional gender role attitudes, and the extent to which those attitudes differed from their female partners' attitudes, increased the risk for men's psychological aggression and relationship dissatisfaction (Falconier, 2013). Thus, Falconier's (2013) results align with the findings in the general population and indicate that it is important to study further whether gender role discrepancy, specifically when men endorse more traditional gender role attitudes than their female partners, leads to relationship dissatisfaction and increased risk of Latino men perpetrating IPV.

Gender Role Conflict Theory, Relationship Satisfaction, and IPV. The previous section details the ample evidence that some men engage in violence when they perceive a loss of control and power in their relationship. To better understand and address this phenomenon, scholars have proposed Gender Role Conflict Theory (O'Neil

et al., 1995); this theory proposes that men's aggression towards their partners may be due to men feeling that they are not meeting their standards of masculinity, or they perceive that their female partners do not meet their gender role. Gender Role Conflict Theory proposes that gender role conflict is a psychological state in which socialized gender roles have negative consequences for the person or others; and this process usually happens when the person has internalized rigid, sexist, or restrictive gender roles (O'Neil et al., 1995). A review of research using the Gender Role Conflict Scale shows that men who endorse higher levels of gender role conflict are more likely to report lower marital and relationship satisfaction and more likely to report sexually aggressive behaviors and likelihood of forcing sex, abusive behaviors and coercion in dating violence, and hostility toward women (See O'Neil, 2008).

Furthermore, because the measure of gender role conflict is very broad, researchers also study the subjective distressful experience of men who perceive that they are not meeting masculinity norms, a process called masculine gender role stress (Copenhaver et al., 2000). The stress ensues when men who value rigid gender roles think that they are not able to meet those norms, or when they are in a situation that requires them to do "unmanly" or "feminine" behaviors (Eisler & Skidmore, 1987). A review of research using the Masculine Role Stress Scale shows that men who experience more masculine role stress are more likely to endorse more physical and verbal aggression toward female partners in studies using vignettes and more self-reported past IPV perpetration (Baugher & Gazmararian, 2015); these studies used non-Latinx samples predominantly. Thus, there is evidence that men who experience gender role conflict and

gender role stress are more likely to report lower relationship satisfaction and engage in aggressive behaviors towards their partners.

Most research using the measures of Gender Role Conflict Scale, the Masculine Role Stress Scale, and IPV-related outcomes has not focused on Latinx samples. However, Gender Role Conflict Theory and the results with White samples align with qualitative research where Latinx participants report that male IPV perpetration can result from changes in social roles in the couple. It seems that for men who adhere to strict views of gender, when they feel that they are not meeting masculinity norms or their female partner deviates from her expected gender norms, might experience heightened distress and dissatisfaction with the relationship. Therefore, to address feelings of distress and dissatisfaction, men may use violence to maintain control at home, which is consistent with the Feminist Theory that views IPV perpetration as a means to obtain or maintain power (hooks, 2000). Therefore, based on the reviewed literature, it seems that when there is gender discrepancy, specifically with men endorsing more traditional gender role attitudes than their partners, men may experience lower relationship satisfaction that could escalate into IPV perpetration.

The Current Study

This study focused on Latino men who are in a heterosexual relationship. First, for the present study, we were interested in assessing the discrepancy between men's expectations of how their female partners should be, and how they perceive them to be, in terms of gender roles. Based on the literature reviewed, for men who hold more traditional gender role views for women, when they perceive that their partners do not meet those expectations, they may become dissatisfied with their partners and the

relationship. The present study used an approach common in romantic relationships research in which researchers ask participants about attitudes, behaviors, and traits they would want in their ideal partner, and what they actually perceive their current partner to be and do. Fletcher, Simpson, Thomas, and Giles (1999) developed scales that asks participants about their ideal partner and then about the extent to which their current partner meets those expectations. The difference between their ideal and current partner has been called the ideal-perceived partner discrepancy. Researchers have used the paradigm of the ideal-perceived discrepancy approach to compute ideal-perceived partner discrepancy scores (Li & Fung, 2011). Therefore, the ideal-perceived partner discrepancy paradigm is widely used in research on couples' dynamics to study how perceived discrepancies between ideal and current partners relate to multiple relationship quality and well-being outcomes.

For the present study, the ideal-perceived partner discrepancy paradigm was integrated to assess men's endorsement of how important it is for their partner to meet the different facets of *Marianismo* and whether their current partners meet those expectations. I used the structure of Fletcher's and colleagues scale with the *Marianismo* Belief Scale (Castillo et al., 2010). Specifically, the current study used the approach of Fletcher and colleague's ideal-perceived partner discrepancy questionnaire where participants are asked to "rank the following items in terms of HOW IMPORTANT each item is in terms of your ideal relationship/partner in a close relationship (dating, living together, or married)", and then participants are asked to "rank the following items in terms of the extent to which each item ACCURATELY DESCRIBES your current (actual) relationship/partner (dating, living together, or married)." The items that

participants rated were from the *Marianismo* Beliefs Scale to assess ideal-perceived partner discrepancy regarding gender role views about their partners (Castillo et al., 2010).

Additionally, participants were asked about their endorsement of *Machismo* and *Caballerismo* to assess their attitudes about how men should be. Moreover, the participants provided their perception of their female partners' endorsement of these same attitudes. The men's own endorsement and their perceived partner's gender role attitudes were used to assess gender role discrepancy regarding men's gender role. Previous studies have used the same method to assess discrepancy in attitudes by measuring a participant's own endorsement of an attitude and what they perceive another person's endorsement of those attitudes would be. For example, a study with Latinx adolescents measured the adolescents' endorsement of traditional gender role attitudes and the adolescents' perception of their parents' gender role attitudes; the scores were used to calculate gender role discrepancy scores between adolescent and parents' attitudes (Céspedes & Huey, 2008).

Aims and Hypotheses

Based on the literature reviewed, the proposed study had two major aims:

1) To use validated questionnaires of traditional Latinx gender role attitudes, specifically *Machismo, Caballerismo,* and *Marianismo,* to utilize a more culturally valid measure of gender role attitudes.
2) To examine a model of how gender role attitudes may increase the risk of IPV perpetration among Latino men by evaluating two separate models assessing

gender role discrepancies, and how those discrepancies may relate to relationship dissatisfaction and IPV perpetration.

Model 1. The first set of hypotheses were: 1) higher ideal-perceived partner discrepancy regarding *Marianismo* (specifically when participants report that it is important for them that their partners meet *Marianismo's* different characteristics, and report that their partners do not meet these expectations) would be associated with higher rates of IPV male perpetration. 2) The high ideal-perceived partner discrepancy regarding *Marianismo* would be related to low relationship satisfaction. 3) Low levels of relationship satisfaction would be related to higher rates of IPV perpetration and would mediate the association between ideal-perceived partner discrepancy regarding *Marianismo* and IPV perpetration (See Figure 1.1).

Initially, when the study was proposed, the hypotheses in model 1 were made under the assumptions that ideal-perceived partner discrepancy would be caused by men reporting that their ideal female partner should follow *Marianismo* more than their current partner does. However, it is possible to obtain an ideal-perceived partner score if men report that they would prefer their ideal partner to comply less with *Marianismo* than their current partner does. There was limited empirical and theoretical work to state informed hypotheses of how a discrepancy in that direction would function with the current model. Therefore, it was proposed that the data would be reviewed to see if there are participants endorsing discrepancies in the opposite direction to the one assumed for analyses. Based on the number of participants with this type of discrepancy, they would either be dropped from main analyses, or a subsample would be created to see how that discrepancy relates to the other constructs in the model.

Model 2. The central hypotheses were: 1) higher discrepancy in the endorsement of *Machismo* (men's high endorsement and their perception of their female partner's low endorsement) would be associated with higher rates of IPV male perpetration. 2) The high discrepancy in the endorsement of *Machismo* would be related to low relationship satisfaction. 3) Low levels of relationship satisfaction would be related to higher rates of IPV perpetration and would mediate the association between discrepancy in the endorsement of *Machismo* and IPV perpetration. (See Figure 1.2).

Initially, when the study was proposed, it was assumed that men would report higher levels of *Machismo* than what they perceive their partners to endorse. A gender role discrepancy score could be obtained if men report lower endorsement of *Machismo* than their perception of their female partner. It was proposed that we would review the data to see if there were participants endorsing discrepancies in the opposite direction to one assumed for analyses. Based on the number of participants with this type of discrepancy, they would either be dropped from main analyses, or a subsample would be created to see how that discrepancy relates to the other constructs in the model.

Furthermore, discrepancy in the endorsement of *Caballerismo* would also be computed. *Caballerismo* is conceptualized as a positive masculinity, and the empirical studies reviewed previously show that higher endorsement of this belief is associated with positive outcomes in samples of Latino men. Therefore, for the current study, exploratory studies were conducted to assess how discrepancies in the endorsement of *Caballerismo* related to relationship satisfaction and IPV.

Figure 1.1 Depiction of Model 1.

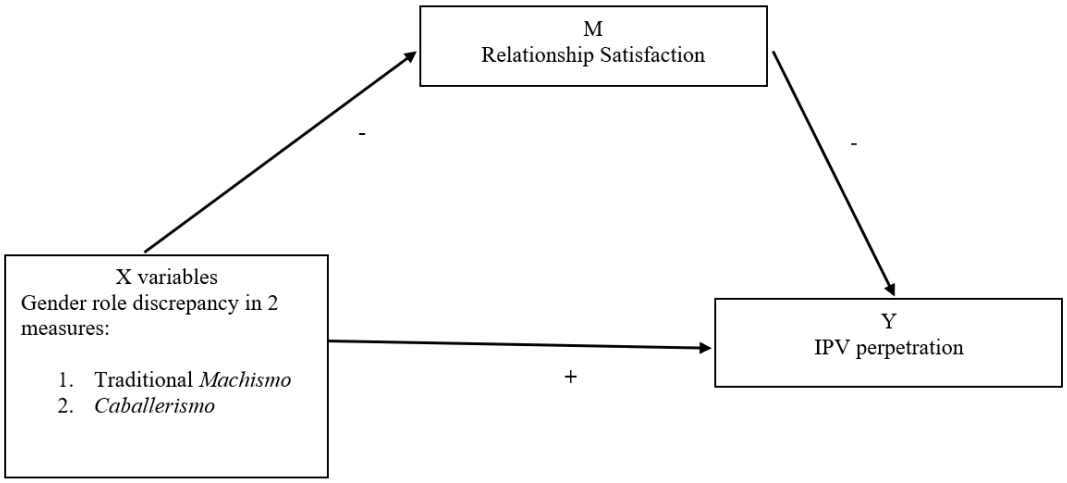

Figure 1.2 Depiction of Model 2

CHAPTER 2

METHODS

Participants had the opportunity to take the survey in English. The online survey was hosted on the Qualtrics website. Participants were recruited via Amazon TurkPrime Panels. TurkPrime Panels create large, and more representative pools of participants by integrating research platforms (From where does Prime Panels recruit participants? n.d.). Amazon TurkPrime was designed as an online research platform that integrates with Amazon's Mechanical Turk (MTurk) and supports research tasks common in social sciences (Litman et al., 2017). MTurk consists of workers, or individuals over 18 years of age, who sign up to receive payment for completing different tasks, including research studies. Studies using data collected via MTurk have been published in high-impact journals (Chandler & Shapiro, 2016; Miller, 2011). Advantages of this recruitment source include cost-effectiveness, a large participant pool (500,000 registered users), high-quality data, and a diverse sample (Chandler & Shapiro, 2016; Paolacci et al., 2010; Shapiro et al., 2013). Additionally, MTurk is relatively strong at attracting young Latinxs compared to nationally stratified sample surveys (Huff & Tingley, 2015). Research using MTurk shows comparable reliability to other online non-probability samples (e.g., university participants pools) (Johnson & Borden, 2012; Gardner et al., 2012).

MTurk was not originally designed to be a research tool. Thus, Amazon developed TurkPrime, a web-based service designed to address the limitations of MTurk when using it for research (Litman et al., 2017). TurkPrime provides the option to request

panels of participants based on some selection criteria; for example, it allowed us to request participants who are Latino men in a relationship. TurkPrime draws from MTurk workers as well as dozens of market research platforms to create panels. Participants selected into a panel are profiled on different variables, and TurkPrime checks for consistency in responses to these variables over time to ensure accuracy (From where does Prime Panels recruit participants? n.d.). Besides using multiple screening methods for profiling participants, TurkPrime offers the option to replace for free participants who were added to the panel by mistake or who provide questionable quality data (How do you ensure data quality on Prime Panels? n.d.). Thus, TurkPrime Panels provide an effective method to reach Latino men for this study.

TurkPrime charges $1.75 per worker for a 20-minute survey in addition to a Panel charge that ranges from $0 to $ 3.00 based on the incidence rate of the requested characteristics. Additionally, TurkPrime displays the feasibility of the study to run to completion based on the requested characteristics. For the current study, TurkPrime shows that requesting participants who are men, identify as Hispanic, are married or in a domestic partnership/living with someone, and who identify as heterosexual for a 20-minute survey would cost 4.28 per participant. Thus, to recruit 320 the total cost was calculated to be $1,369.60 (n = 320 was deemed as the needed sample size based on a priori power analyses). Additionally, TurkPrime indicates that requesting that number of participants with those characteristics is feasible based on their participant pool.

Inclusion Criteria and Target Population

The target population for this study was heterosexual Latino men living in the United States who are currently in a romantic relationship. Relationship was defined as

married or in a domestic partnership/living with someone as the two options available in TurkPrime Panels. Participants were over 18.

Procedure

Funding

This project was supported by different sources including: 1) The Psychological Foundation's (APF) 2019 Visionary Fund Grant. 2) The Laura Griffin Student Development Fund from the Department of Psychology of the University of South Carolina. 3) Dr. Swan's lab funding at the University of South Carolina.

Piloting

A series of piloting procedures were used to ensure that the online questionnaires did not have errors, the skip logic for inclusion criteria worked well, and to test completion time. First, four Latino men who volunteered to test the questionnaire completed the Qualtrics survey. They were given different profiles with different demographic characteristics and instructions on how to complete the measures, and they were instructed to not complete survey with their own answers.

Second, two piloting surveys were used to test the questionnaires with MTurk workers. For both procedures, IRB approval was obtained prior to collecting data. First, 10 participants completed the screener, and if they met inclusion criteria, completed the entire survey. All 10 participants were paid $2. Second, 20 male participants took the full survey and were paid $2 to complete the survey.

Data Collection

On 11/28/2019 a study (HIT) was posted to the study panel via TurkPrime. First, a pilot of 30 participants was collected from 11/28/2019 to 12/01/2019. The remaining

sample (290 participants) was collected from 02/05/2020 to 02/17/2020. The obtained dataset was reviewed, and some participants were rejected or removed due to data quality issues (see the section below for detail). Another panel of 43 participants was collected from 02/27/2020 to 03/02/2020, aiming to achieve the intended sample of 320.

Participants who accepted the HIT had the option to click on a link to complete a survey hosted on the Qualtrics website. Participants were provided with a description of the study, potential risks, benefits, and issues of confidentiality to allow them to give informed consent (See Appendix A for the text that was shown to participants). On the final page, information on domestic violence and mental health resources was provided to participants (Appendix B).

The first set of questions in the survey included demographics questionnaires. Following the first section, the presentation of the questionnaires with the different measures were randomized to avoid an effect on participants' responses due to the order of presentation. For example, some participants were presented with the questionnaire assessing *Marianismo* first, and then IPV perpetration, while other participants were presented first with the questionnaire assessing IPV perpetration first, and then *Marianismo.*

Protection of Human Subjects

Potential Risks. The risks of participating in the study was minimal. The information collected was sensitive (e.g., frequency of violent behavior), so a security breach may be a risk. However, the risk of this occurring was very low because I did not collect any personally identifying information. Participants' responses were linked to their Participant ID. However, it was not possible for me to link this to personally

identifiable information because TurkPrime does not allow this process to happen. Although TurkPrime administrators can link Participant IDs to personally identifiable information, they did not have access to my dataset because the data was collected in a different system (Qualtrics).

Another possible risk was emotional distress for participants from answering questions about violence. For example, it was possible that a participant who had experienced violence would be distressed to answer questions about this content. Participants were able to stop participation at any point. Additionally, participants were informed of the content of study before beginning the study with the option of not participating. Finally, at the end of the survey, participants were presented with contact information for crisis intervention, mental health, and domestic violence services. In the unlikely event that an adverse event would have occurred, my advisor (Dr. Suzanne Swan) would have been immediately notified. In this event, the University of South Carolina Institutional Review Board would have been notified in accordance with the University's "Unanticipated Problems and Adverse Events Guidelines" policy.

Potential Benefits. The potential benefits to individual participants were minimal. Participants were compensated for completion of the survey based on TurkPrime Panel payment policies. The survey presented information about crisis intervention, mental health, and suicide prevention resources that may have prompted a participant to seek help from these sources. The present study stands to benefit the public as results may inform the development of violence prevention programs for Latino men. However, there were not immediate benefit to study participants.

Confidentiality. To protect the identity of each participant, the data collected for this study were considered anonymous. The investigator was not able to link the data with personally identifiable information. The survey did not include questions that would prompt participants to disclose personally identifiable information (e.g., name). Data was collected via Qualtrics and was accessible only by research staff who have been given a password to log into the Qualtrics account. After data collection was complete, the data was downloaded via an Excel and SPSS files. The dataset was stored on a password-protected, encrypted hard drive.

Measures

All measure instructions and items are provided in Appendix C.

Demographic information. A demographic questionnaire was administered to obtain basic information about participants' demographic characteristics. The questionnaire asked about the participants' race; if they identify as Hispanic, Latino, Latinx man; age; relationship status and whether the participant is in a relationship with a woman; preferred reading and speaking language. Participants were also asked about their immigration generation, years lived in the US, and whether their partner was Hispanic. There were no questions related to legal immigration status or documentation.

The Marianismo Beliefs Scale (MBS) (Castillo et al., 2010) is a measure that has five subscales that assesses the extent to which a person believes that a woman should be the Family Pillar, Virtuous and Chaste, Subordinate to Others, Self-Silencing to maintain harmony, and the Spiritual Pillar (Castillo et al., 2010). Responses are recorded using a 4-point Likert-type scale (1=Strongly Disagree to 4=Strongly Agree) and scores are added to create each subscale. The MBS was combined with Fletcher's

and colleague's measure of the ideal-perceived partner ideal discrepancy questionnaire to ask participants how important it is for them that their ideal partner embodies the five facets of *Marianismo* and their perception of how much they actually embody those *Marianismo* characteristics (Castillo et al., 2010). The MBS has been validated with Latino boys where factor analysis showed the same 5-factor structure, and the measure had good internal validity (αs of 74 to .80) (Piña-Watson et al., 2014). Similarly, a study with Latinx college student men and women found a five-factor structure and an overall Cronbach α of .88 (the study does not report results by gender) (Terrazas-Castillo & Sabina, 2019). Cronbach alphas for this study for ratings of ideal partner and current partner were respectively the following: Family Pillar (α = .75 and α = .82), Virtuous and Chaste (α = .80 and α = .80), Subordinate to Others (α = .84 and α = .83), Self-Silencing (α = .84 and α = .78), and the Spiritual Pillar (α = .90 and α = .91).

Partner and Relationship Ideal Scales (Fletcher et al., 1999). These measures assess the extent to which certain qualities are important for a person in their ideal partner, and the extent to which their current partner has those qualities. For this study, the stem of the questionnaire was used. It reads "rank the following items in terms of HOW IMPORTANT each item is in terms of your ideal relationship/partner in a close relationship (dating, living together, or married)." Participants rated their answers on a 7-point Likert scale from (1= Very Unimportant to 7 = Very Important). Second, participants were asked to "rank the following items in terms of the extent to which each item ACCURATELY DESCRIBES your current (actual) relationship/partner (dating, living together, or married)." Participants rated their answers on a 7-point Likert scale from (1= Strongly Disagree to7=Strongly Agree). The items that participants rated were

from the Marianismo Beliefs Scale to assess how they assessed their ideal and current partner on *Marianismo* (Castillo et al., 2010). The absolute difference between the ratings for the ideal and perceived partner adherence to *Marianismo* subscales were calculated for a total of five ideal-perceived partner discrepancy scores.

The Traditional Machismo and Caballerismo Scale (Arciniegas et al., 2008). This questionnaire is a 20-item measure that was used to assess traditional M*achismo* (e.g., "Men are superior to women") and *Caballerismo* (e.g., "Men should be affectionate with their children") and were modified to assess participants' perceptions of their partner's endorsement of traditional *Machismo* and *Caballerismo* (Arciniegas et al., 2008). Responses to items were recorded using a 7-point Likert scale (1=Very Strongly Disagree to 7=Very Strongly Agree). The questionnaire has been validated with Latino men and shows good reliability (αs = .84 for Traditional *Machismo* and αs = .71 for *Caballerismo*.) The current study reliability for own and perceived partner's endorsements were adequate for *Machismo* (α = .89 and α = .89) and *Caballerismo* (α = .84 and α = .88).

The Conflict Tactics Scale-2 (Straus, Hamby, Boney-McCoy, & Sugarman, 1996) The CTS-2 was used to assess intimate partner violence perpetration. The CTS-2 has five subscales: negotiation, which measures positive conflict management strategies that are alternatives to violence (e.g., "I agreed to try a solution to a disagreement my partner suggested."), psychological aggression (e.g., "I threatened to hit or throw something at my partner."), physical aggression (e.g., "I choked my partner"), injury (e.g., "My partner went to the doctor because of a fight with me.") and sexual coercion (e.g., "I used force (like hitting, holding down, or using a weapon) to make my partner

have sex.") The questionnaire has 39 items to assess perpetration. For the current study, the subscales of psychological aggression, physical assault, and sexual coercion were included in the analyses; negotiation items were administered as fillers in the survey. Administration of individual subscales is deemed acceptable by the creators of the measure (Straus et al., 1996; Straus et al., 2003). Participants indicate the frequency to the items of each item within a specific time interval. (e.g., "this never happened," "Once in the last year," "6-10 times in the last year").[3] Based on previous studies (Swan et al., 2012), the categories were recoded as "never" (0), "once" (1), and "twice" (2), "3 to 5 times" (3), "6 to 10 times" (4), "10 or more times" (5). Those who indicate "Yes, this has happened but not in the past year" are coded as "0" to limit the assessment of occurrences in the past year; additionally, coding "Yes, this has happened but not in the past year" as "0" is the recommended practice for coding this measure when it is used as a predictor of current psychological states (Straus et al., 1996). The scoring method yields a sum score for each form of IPV perpetration in the past year. This scoring method shows adequate internal consistency for psychological aggression ($\alpha = .68$), physical assault ($\alpha = .91$), and sexual coercion ($\alpha = .93$) subscales (Swan et al., 2012). However, as it is common with self-reports of aggressive behaviors, these subscales often violate normality assumptions, in that case, they may be treated as dichotomous variables (Vega & O'Leary, 2007).

Both reliability and validity studies have been conducted on the CTS-2. A study with young Latino men and women showed acceptable reliability with αs of .68, .62, .63, .73, and .79 for the Negotiation, Psychological Aggression, Physical Assault, Sexual

[3] In the present study, the answer option should have read "this never happened" in accordance with the CTS-2; instead it stated "this never happened in the past year."

Coercion, and Injury, respectively (alphas reported for men and women combined) (Sugihara & Warner 2002). In a study of Mexican American college students, the scales regarding perpetration of physical and psychological abuse were used and showed adequate reliability (αs .69 to .72) respectively (alphas reported for men and women combined) (Ferguson, 2011). The Cronbach alphas of the current study indicate adequate reliability for the scales used in the study with physical aggression (α = .97), psychological aggression (α = .89), and sexual aggression (α = .85).

The Dyadic Satisfaction subscale from the Dyadic Adjustment Scale (DAS) (Spanier, 1976) is a 10-item scale that was used to assess relationship satisfaction. Participants rated each statement using a 6-point Likert-type scale assessing the degree to which partners are satisfied with their relationship (e.g., ‘‘How often do you think that things between you and your partner are going well?’’) (0= All the Time to 5 = Never). The measure shows adequate reliability (original study α = .95) and has been used with Latinx men and women (αs of .86 for both) (Falconier, 2013). The current study shows adequate reliability with α = .81.

Additional Items. The following items are based on qualitative studies reviewed for the present study where Latinx immigrants identified gender role change as the result of women joining the workforce as a source of couple conflict and male IPV perpetration. The following questions aim to capture proxies of the gender role change process described in the qualitative studies. Participants were asked the following items with the answer options of “yes” or “no.” 1) “Does your wife/ partner work?” 2) “Does it bother you that your wife works?” 3) “Does your wife/ partner make more money than you?” 4) “Does your wife make dinner every night?” 5) “Does your wife/ partner have primary

responsibility for taking care of the children?" 6) "Does your wife/ partner challenge your authority?"

Additionally, an open-ended question asked "Does your wife do things that make you feel like less of a man, if so what are these things."

Data Quality Items. Participants who have the option to complete the full survey were presented with one item at the end of the survey that states "We recognize that there are many factors that impact how someone responds to questionnaires such as this. It is helpful for us to have a sense of how accurate your responses to the questions in this survey were. Is there any reason that we should not include your data in our analyses? For example, careless responding, not being honest in your responses, or not answering accurately on the screening survey? Answering this question will NOT influence your payment." with the answer options "You should include my responses in your analyses" and "You should NOT include my responses in your analyses." A statement made it clear that their payment would not be affected based on how they answered this item.

Additionally, participants were presented with the question "For this study, we are only interested in collecting data on men who identify as Latino, Latinx, or Hispanic? Should we include your responses? Answering this question will NOT influence your payment" with the answer options "You should include my responses in your analyses" and "You should NOT include my responses in your analyses."

Feedback Item. Participants who have the option to complete the full survey were presented with one item at the end of the survey that states "Please tell us your thoughts and general reactions to this survey" and had the opportunity to type feedback.

Data Analytic Approach

All analyses were conducted using IBM SPSS Statistics including the add-on PROCESS (version 3.1; Hayes & Rockwood, 2017). Descriptive and correlational statistics were calculated for key study variables.

First, to decide the appropriate analysis to be used, the CTS-2 subscales were analyzed to assess if they met normality assumptions, because they did not meet normality assumptions, they were dichotomized between having perpetrated that type of IPV (1) or not (0) in the past year. Logistic regressions were used to test the different hypotheses. Model 4 of the PROCESS macros for SPSS was used for all the regression analyses (logistic and hierarchical regressions) (See figure 2.1).

First set of hypotheses were: 1) higher ideal-perceived partner discrepancy regarding *Marianismo* (specifically when participants report that it is important for them that their partners meet *Marianismo's* different characteristic and report that their partners do not meet these expectations) would be associated with higher rates of IPV male perpetration. 2) The high ideal-perceived partner discrepancy regarding *Marianismo* would be related to low relationship satisfaction. 3) Low levels of relationship satisfaction would be related to higher rates of IPV perpetration and would mediate the association between *Marianismo* ideal-perceived partner discrepancy and IPV perpetration.

To test the first set of hypotheses separate regression were conducted for each ideal-perceived partner discrepancy regarding *Marianismo* (10; 5 different subscales, each with positive and negative discrepancies) and each of the CTS-2 subscales (3 different subscales).

The second set of hypotheses were: 1) higher discrepancy in the endorsement of *Machismo* (men's high endorsement and their perception of their female partner's low endorsement) would be associated with higher rates of IPV male perpetration. 2) The high discrepancy in the endorsement of *Machismo* would be related to low relationship satisfaction. 3) Low levels of relationship satisfaction would be related to higher rates of IPV perpetration and would mediate the association between discrepancy in the endorsement of *Machismo* and IPV perpetration.

To test the second set of hypotheses separate regression were conducted for discrepancy scores for *Machismo* on each of the CTS-2 subscales (3 different subscales).

Computation of Discrepancy Scores

For the current study, discrepancy scores were computed for each subscale of the *Marianismo* Beliefs Scale between the mean of the subscale for ideal partner questionnaire and the mean of the same subscale for the current partner; for example, the discrepancy for Family Pillar was computed by subtracting the mean of Family Pillar for the current partner from the mean of Family Pillar for the ideal partner (e.g., A participant who rates his ideal Family Pillar items for an ideal female partner 'should be' as 6.5, and then rates his current partner as 5.5 on the Family Pillar items would receive a positive discrepancy score of 1). Thus, a positive discrepancy score for a subscale indicates that the current partner embodies the subscale less than what the participant has reported as ideal. A score of zero in a discrepancy indicates no mismatch between the ideal and the current partner (e.g., A participant who rates his ideal Family Pillar items for an ideal female partner 'should be' as 5.5 and then rates his current partner as 5.5 on the Family Pillar items would receive a discrepancy score of 0). A negative score indicates that the

current partner surpasses what the participant endorsed as ideal for a partner (e.g., A participant who rates his ideal Family Pillar items for an ideal female partner as 5.5 and then rates his current partner as 6.5 on the Family Pillar items would receive a negative discrepancy score of -1).

Similarly, discrepancy scores were computed between the participants' endorsement of *Machismo* and *Caballerismo* and their perceived partner endorsement of these scales; for example, the *Machismo* discrepancy score was calculated by subtracting the mean of perceived partner endorsement of *Machismo* for how men "should be" from the mean of their own endorsement of *Machismo*. Thus, a positive score indicates that the participant thinks their partner endorses *Machismo* less than they do (e.g., ., A participant who endorses their level of agreement with *Machismo* is 6.5, and then endorses that their partner's level of agreement with *Machismo* is 5.5 would receive a positive discrepancy of 1). A score of zero indicates no discrepancy between their endorsement of *Machismo* and the perceived partner endorsement (e.g., ., A participant who endorses their level of agreement with *Machismo* is 5.5, and then endorses that their partner's level of agreement with *Machismo* is 5.5 would receive a discrepancy of 0). A negative score indicates that the participant thinks their partner endorses *Machismo* more than they do (e.g., ., A participant who endorses their level of agreement with *Machismo* is 5.5, and then endorses that their partner's level of agreement with *Machismo* is 6.5 would receive a negative discrepancy of -1).

For analyses, positive discrepancies were conceptualized as theoretically different from a negative discrepancy score, and thus, should be analyzed separately (More detailed for this conceptualization is provided in the discussion section). Table 2.1

displays the distribution of participants with positive (mead difference > 0), negative (mean difference < 0), and no discrepancies per subscale (mean difference = 0).

Separate samples of positive and negative discrepancies were created for each subscale of *Marianismo, Machismo,* and *Caballerismo,* prior to testing the main models. After computing the discrepancy scores for each subscale, those with scores of zero and all positive scores, were grouped into a "positive discrepancy subsample" for each subscale. Those with negative discrepancies, starting at zero and all negative scores, were grouped into "negative discrepancy subsample" per subscale. Participants with a score of zero were included in both subsamples (positive and negative) to ensure variability in the distribution of the discrepancy measures (from no discrepancy to high discrepancy) and to avoid losing power due to small samples by not including those participants in analyses.

Theoretical and empirical considerations informed the decision to include participants with scores of zero in both discrepancy samples. Previous research using the ideal-perceived partner discrepancy framework has calculated the discrepancy scores using multiple methodologies. Some studies have calculated the mean difference, without separating positive scores from negative ones, thus, including zero in the range of scores as part of a continuous variable (Gonzalez-Mendez et al., 2019). Other studies have used absolute values by transforming negative mean difference scores into positive scores and combining all discrepancies; using this approach, zero is the lowest limit of a continuous variable (Ruvolo & Veroff, 1997). Two studies have separated positive from negative discrepancies; Frost & Forrester, (2013) included those with a score of zero as part of the "negative" discrepancies, but not the positive discrepancies; however, no rationale was

provided for that decision. In the second study separating negative and positive discrepancies, Buyukcan-Tetik et al. (2017) do not describe computing methods in detail to establish whether zero was included in both discrepancies or just one. Therefore, multiple studies that have computed the ideal-perceived partner discrepancy as a mean difference have included zero as part of the range. Additionally, there are limited examples in the literature of approaches on how to separate negative and positive discrepancies. Thus, it was deemed that the most parsimonious approach would be to include participants with scores of zero in both samples, positive and negative discrepancies.

The process to create positive and negative discrepancies was conducted for the five subscales of the *Marianismo* Beliefs Scale, and *Machismo*, and *Caballerismo* scales. A total of 14 subsamples were created (two types of discrepancy scores, positive and negative, by seven scales of gender role attitudes). For negative discrepancies, a more negative score (the further from zero) represented more discrepancy between ideal and current partner (partner exceeded ideal); thus, negative discrepancies were transformed into absolute values for ease in understanding and interpreting later analyses. Table 2.2 shows descriptive statistics of the 14 discrepancy subscales.

A Priori Power Analysis

Based on a power analysis, a sample of n = 320 participants (α = .05) would have adequate power (β = .80) to detect the different effects proposed in the models (See Figure 2.2 and Figure 2.3). For a breakdown of the power analyses assumptions, see Appendix D. Therefore, my goal for this study was to survey n = 320 Latino men who are in a relationship. I requested 320 participants on TurkPrime Panel.

Table 2.1. Frequencies of Discrepancy Types

Subscale Name		Positive Discrepancy n (%)	No discrepancy n (%)	Negative Discrepancy n (%)
Marianismo Scales				
	Family Pillar	124 (42.3)	61 (20.8)	108 (36.9)
	Virtuous and Chaste	123 (39.5)	62 (19.9)	126 (40.5)
	Subordinate to Others	125 (40.1)	38 (12.2)	149 (47.8)
	Self-Silencing	107 (34.4)	39 (12.5)	165 (53.1)
	Spiritual Pillar	129 (41.1)	80 (25.5)	105 (33.7)
Machismo		121 (38.7)	28 (8.9)	164 (52.5)
Caballerismo		141 (45.0)	115 (36.7)	57 (18.2)

Table 2.2. Descriptive Statistics Gender Role Attitudes Discrepancies

	n	Min	Max	Mean	*SD*	Skewness	Kurtosis
Positive Discrepancies							
Marianismo Subscales							
Family Pillar	186	0.00	3.40	0.62	0.701	1.316	0.355
Virtuous and Chaste	185	0.00	4.20	0.63	0.759	1.804	4.280
Subordinate to Others	163	0.00	3.00	0.64	0.659	1.211	1.108
Self-Silencing	146	0.00	2.67	0.57	0.610	1.317	1.303
Spiritual Pillar	209	0.00	5.33	0.64	0.852	2.210	6.566
Machismo	150	0.00	2.40	0.42	0.464	1.667	2.866
Caballerismo	198	0.00	2.90	0.42	0.573	1.934	3.472
Negative Discrepancies (Absolute Values)							
Marianismo Subscales							
Family Pillar	169	0.00	3.40	0.40	0.558	2.588	9.021
Virtuous and Chaste	188	0.00	3.20	0.66	0.775	1.289	0.950
Subordinate to Others	187	0.00	3.60	0.69	0.673	1.272	1.836
Self-Silencing	204	0.00	3.50	0.67	0.689	1.556	2.757
Spiritual Pillar	186	0.00	6.00	0.59	0.897	2.606	8.973
Machismo	192	0.00	3.30	0.63	0.643	1.545	2.380
Caballerismo	173	0.00	2.20	0.22	0.296	2.861	12.822

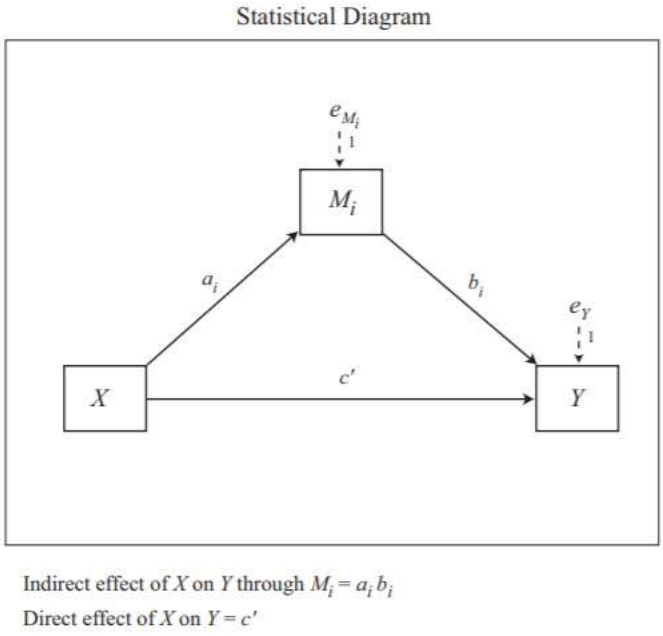

Figure 2.1. Model 4 of the PROCESS macros for SPSS.

Figure 2.2 Depiction of Model 1.

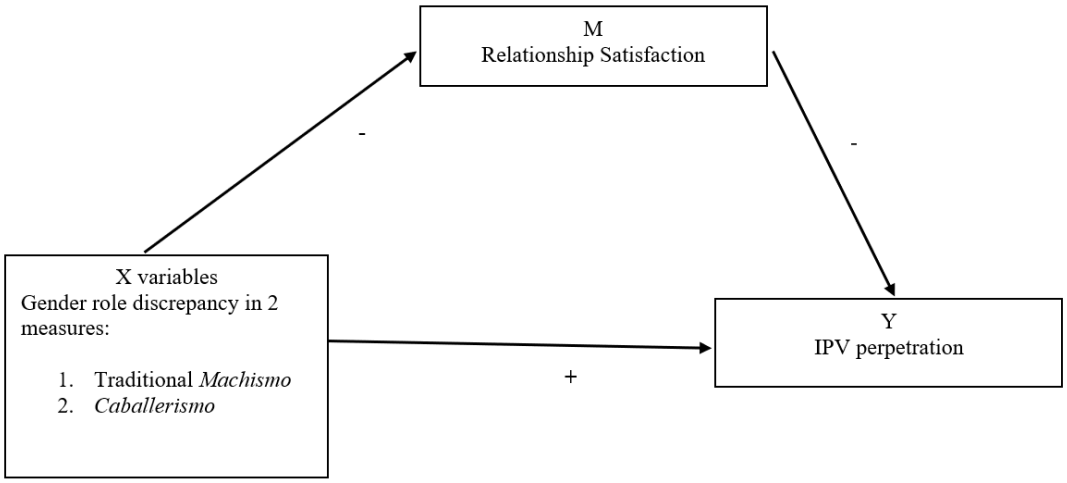

Figure 2.3 Depiction of Model 2.

CHAPTER 3

RESULT

Data Collection Process

A survey was published using a panel on TurkPrime, where 320 participants were requested. First, a pilot of 30 participants was collected from 11/28/2019 to 12/01/2019. The remaining sample (290 participants) was collected from 02/05/2020 to 02/17/2020. The obtained dataset was reviewed, and some participants were rejected or removed due to data quality issues (see the section below for details). Another panel of 43 participants was collected from 02/27/2020 to 03/02/2020, aiming to achieve the intended sample of 320.

TurkPrime utilizes different tools to screen out participants, such as an attention screener and screeners for requested characteristics (e.g., male, Hispanic, heterosexual). TurkPrime does not include participants who do not consent to complete the study or who do not submit a "HIT" (which is the internal procedure of TurkPrime to ensure participants completed the study).

Data Quality Checks

Data was collected on the Qualtrics Website, which is a separate website from TurkPrime; therefore, participants could click on the Qualtrics link, start the survey, and not finalize it; their answers were saved in Qualtrics as new cases. A total of 474 cases were collected in Qualtrics; however, only 368 participants were approved by TurkPrime based on the inclusion criteria and the other requirements used to ensure high data quality

and survey completion. This sample of 368 participants was used for this study analyses. Before beginning data analyses, I evaluated the quality of the data and removed participants with poor data. This process is displayed visually in Figure 3.1. An undergraduate research assistant who was familiar with all the measures, and who had piloted the survey several times, took the survey without reading the texts for the consent, introduction, and resources pages. Thus, the research assistant only read instructions and items for the survey questionnaires. The research assistant took eight minutes to complete the survey following the described procedure. Participants whose completion time was less than 8 minutes were excluded (n=34). Thirteen participants indicated that their answers should not be included in the two quality data questions (i.e., 1. "We recognize that there are many factors that impact how someone responds to questionnaires such as this. It is helpful for us to have a sense of how accurate your responses to the questions in this survey were. Is there any reason that we should not include your data in our analyses? For example, careless responding, not being honest in your responses, or not answering accurately on the screening survey? Answering this question will NOT influence your payment." with the answer options "You should include my responses in your analyses" and "You should NOT include my responses in your analyses;" 2. "For this study, we are only interested in collecting data on men who identify as Latino, Latinx, or Hispanic? Should we include your responses? Answering this question will NOT influence your payment" with the answer options "You should include my responses in your analyses" and "You should NOT include my responses in your analyses.") One participant who indicated that he only spoke Spanish was excluded. Five participants displayed a pattern of careless or inattentive responding (e.g., the same

answer choice for the entire questionnaire). The total final sample used for analyses was N = 315.

The survey completion time for the final sample (N = 315) was *M* = 22.11 minutes (*SD* = 14.21; Minimum 8.02 minutes, Maximum 78.88 minutes), with a median completion time of 17.08 minutes.

Statistical Analysis

Demographics

Table 3.1 presents the demographic characteristics of the entire sample. The average age was 40.00 (*SD* = 11.17; Minimum = 18; Maximum = 73). Most participants identified as White (74.9%), followed by "other" (14.9%), Black or African American (7.3%), and American Indian or Alaskan Native (2.9%). Most participants reported being married (85.4%). Most participants reported an individual annual income of $ 40 000 – $ 60 000 (24.8%) and an annual household income of $100 000 or higher (26.7%). Most participants reported that their partner worked (71.7%). Most participants reported working full time (79.0%) or were retired (8.3%). About 12.7% of participants stated that they were students, among whom the most common degree pursued was post-college or graduate school (27.5%).

Table 3.1 also presents descriptive statistics of acculturation indicators. Most participants reported being born in the US (83.5%). Participants born outside the US were classified as first generation (16.5%). Participants born in the US and who had at least one parent born outside the US were coded as second generation (42.5%). Those who reported at least one grandparent, but no parents, having been born outside the US were considered third generation (21.9%). Lastly, participants who reported that all parents

and grandparents were born in the US were considered fourth generation (19%). Among those who were born outside the US, the average number of years living in the US was 28.3 (*SD* = 17.19; Minimum = 1.0; Maximum = 60.00). Most participants reported that they spoke English and Spanish equally well (46.3%). Most of the sample reported having a Latina partner (71.7%), and a partner born in the US (81.0%). Table 3.1. presents other partner acculturation measures indicators.

Main Variables Descriptive Statistics

The measure of Relationship Satisfaction Scale (Appendix C) was inversed scored, so that higher scores indicated more relationship satisfaction. The mean score on the Relationship Satisfaction Scale was 4.75, meaning that most participants answered between *Most of the time* and *All the time* across the entire scale (*SD*= .85; See Table 3.2). Table 3.2. presents the descriptive and reliability statistics of the CTS-2 subscales of physical, psychological, and sexual aggression. The CTS-2 subscales were highly skewed, so they were recoded into dichotomous variables where one equaled to at least one item endorsed in the last year, and 0 included no endorsement of any scale item the previous year. "*This never happened the past year*[4]" and the response *"Not in the past year, but it did happen before"* was also coded as 0, as is the recommended practice for coding this measure when it is used as a predictor of current psychological states (See method section for description of coding). For the subscale of CTS-2 physical aggression, 30.9% endorsed at least one item for the previous year; 67.0% endorsed some form of CTS-2 psychological aggression, and 44.1% endorsed some form of CTS-2 sexual aggression.

[4] The answer option should have read "this never happened" instead of "this never happened in the past year" to follow CTS-2 answer options.

Table 3.2. displays descriptive statistics regarding gender role attitude measures, including the five subscales of the *Marianismo* Beliefs Scale regarding how important each subscale is for an ideal partner, and how much their current partner embodies those subscales. Table 3.2 also presents descriptive statistics for the measures of *Machismo* and *Caballerismo*, including the participants' own endorsement of themselves, and their perceptions of their partner's endorsement of these scales regarding participants. All subscales of the *Marianismo* Beliefs Scale*, Machismo*, and *Caballerismo* show adequate reliability (See Cronbach alphas in Table 3.2). Table 3.3 shows frequencies of discrepancy scores (positive, negative and no discrepancies) for each subscale of *Marianismo,* and for *Machismo* and *Caballerismo*. Table 3.4 shows descriptive statistic of discrepancy scores for positive and negative discrepancies for each subscale of *Marianismo,* and for *Machismo* and *Caballerismo.*

Data Quality before Analyses

Most scales did not have missing data, and when they did it was for one or two data points; thus, less than 5% of the sample had missing data, which was deemed appropriate for statistical analyses (Schafer, 1999; Alice, 2018). One exception was the scale of Family Pillar questionnaire because participants were instructed to skip questions about children if they do not have children; for those participants, mean scores of Family Pillar were calculated with the other items of that subscale. A few of the discrepancy measures did not have normal distributions (assessed using kurtosis and skewness indices reported in Table 3.2). To address the violation of the normality assumptions, mediational analysis to test the hypotheses used two types of methods: First, regression analysis for mediation models using a conventional approach that utilizes Ordinal Least Squares,

which is a parametric statistical approach that requires normal distributions. Second, bootstrapping is a more robust method that does not require data to meet normality assumptions. Thus, regression analyses with bootstrapping was an appropriate method for current data distributions of this study.

Correlations

Demographics, Acculturation, and Gender Role Attitudes. To evaluate how the variables of the study related to each other, I conducted Pearson Correlations between them. Tables 3.5-3.12 present correlations between demographic, acculturation, and gender role attitude measures, including the endorsement of the five subscales of The *Marianismo* Beliefs Scale for an ideal and current partner, and endorsement of *Machismo* and *Caballerismo* scales for own and perceived partner endorsement.

Demographics and Acculturation Measures (Table 3.5). Age was positively correlated to a more committed relationship ($r = .13$, $p < .05$), and, for those born outside the US, it was associated with the number of years living in the US ($r = .84$, $p < .01$). Older participants were less likely to be students ($r = -.28$, $p < .01$), more likely to be born outside the US ($r = .12$, $p < .05$), and to be more proficient in both languages than only in English ($r = .14$, $p < .05$). Being in a more committed relationship was associated to higher individual and household income ($r = .17$, $p < .01$; $r = .12$, $p < .05$), and with lower immigration generation status ($r = .12$, $p < .05$). Those with higher individual and household income were less likely to be students ($r = -.19$, $p < .01$; $r = -.22$, $p < .01$) and more likely to report language proficiency in Spanish than only in English ($r = .21$, $p < .01$; $r = .21$, $p < .05$). Participants with more Spanish proficiency were less likely to be born in the US ($r = .31$, $p < .01$), belonged to more recent immigration generation status

($r = .41$, $p < .01$), were more likely to report that their partner was Latina ($r = .40$, $p < .01$), and for those born outside the US, they were more likely to have lived in the US fewer years ($r = .38$, $p < .01$).

Demographics and Gender Role Attitude Measures (Table 3.6). Age was negatively related to endorsing ideal and current Subordinate to Others and Self-Silencing subscales ($r = -.13$ to $r = -.18$, $p < .05$), to own and partner endorsement of *Machismo* ($r = -14$, $p < .05$; $r = -.13$, $p < .05$), and was positively associated with own and partner endorsement of *Caballerismo* ($r = .14$, $p < .01$; $r = .15$, $p < .05$). Those in more committed relationships reported higher values of Family Pillar and Virtuous and Chaste subscales for ideal and current partner ($rs = .11$ to $-.20$, $p < .05$), Spiritual Pillar for current partner (but not ideal) ($r = .12$, $p < .05$), and partner's endorsement of *Caballerismo* (but not their own) ($r = .13$, $p < .05$) than those in less committed relationships. Individual income was related to higher endorsement of most *Marianismo* Beliefs subscales for ideal partner, except for Self-Silencing and Spiritual Pillar, and with all subscales for current partner ($rs = .11$ to $.22$, $p < .05$), as well as with own and partner's *Machismo* and partner's *Caballerismo* (but not own) ($rs = .13$ to $.22$, $p < .01$). Household income was only related to Family Pillar for current partner ($r = .12$, $p < .05$) and own *Machismo* ($r = .14$, $p < .05$). Those who were students endorsed more Virtuous and Chaste, Subordinate to Others, and Self-Silencing for ideal and current partner ($rs = .14$ to $.21$, $p < .05$), and higher Spiritual Pillar for ideal partner ($r = .17$, $p < .01$).

Acculturation and Gender Role Attitude Measures (Table 3.6). Participants born in the US endorsed less, than those born outside the US, that their current partner embodied the Family Pillar and Virtuous and Chaste subscales ($r = -.14$ $p < .05$; $r = -.12$,

$p < .05$), and endorsed lower own *Caballerismo* ($r = -.14$ $p < .05$). Those of the older immigration generation status (this variable refers to those classified as first generation, second generation, third generation, and fourth generation) were less likely to endorse Spiritual Pillar for their ideal and current partner, Virtuous and Chaste for their current partner, and ideal Family Pillar ($rs = -.13$ to $- .17$, $p < .05$). For those born outside the US, years lived in the US were associated with more endorsement of Family Pillar for current partner ($r = .30$, $p < .05$) and own *Caballerismo* ($r = .33$ $p < .05$). Lastly, participants who reported more Spanish fluency and who reported that their partner was Hispanic/Latina had higher scores in all the *Marianismo* Beliefs Scale subscales for an ideal and their current partner ($rs = .17$ to $.38$, $p < .01$), and for own and partner's *Machismo* ($rs = .25$ to $.27$, $p < .01$).

Correlations between Gender Role Attitudes (Table 3.7). All subscales of *Marianismo* Beliefs Scale for ideal and current partner were positively correlated with each other and with own and partner endorsement of *Machismo* (See table 3.7). Own endorsement of *Caballerismo* was related to most *Marianismo* Beliefs subscales for ideal and current partner, except for Subordinate to Others for ideal partner, Self-Silencing for ideal and current partner, and own and partner's *Machismo*. Similarly, partner perceived endorsement of *Caballerismo* was positively associated with several *Marianismo* subscales, except for Subordinate to Others and Self-Silencing for ideal and current partner, and own and partner's *Machismo*.

Correlations with Relationship Satisfaction and IPV Outcomes.

Demographics, Acculturation, Relationship Satisfaction, and IPV (Table 3.8). Table 3.8 shows the correlations between demographics, acculturation measures,

Relationship Satisfaction, and CTS-2 physical aggression, CTS-2 psychological aggression, and CTS-2 sexual aggression. CTS scales were coded as dichotomous variables. Those who were older were less likely to endorse CTS-2 physical aggression (r = -.18, p < .01) and CTS-2 sexual aggression (r = -.23, p < .01). Being in a more committed relationship was associated with less likelihood of endorsing CTS-2 sexual aggression (r = -.16, p < .01). Those who were students reported lower Relationship Satisfaction (r = -.13, p < .05) and were less likely to report CTS-2 psychological aggression (r = -.14, p < .05) than those who were not students. For participants born outside the US, the number of years living in the US was negatively correlated with CTS-2 physical aggression (r = -.34, p < .05) and CTS-2 sexual aggression (r = -.38 p < .01). Lastly, having a Latina partner was associated with less likelihood of reporting CTS-2 sexual aggression (r = -.12 p < .05).

Reporting higher Relationship Satisfaction was associated with lower likelihood of reporting all CTS-2 subscales: Physical aggression (r = -.38, p < .01), psychological aggression (r = -.30, p < .01), and sexual aggression (r = -.28, p < .01). All the CTS-2 subscales were positively and moderately correlated with each other (rs = .25 to .45, p < .01).

Gender Role Attitudes, Relationship Satisfaction, and IPV (Table 3.9). Table 3.9. shows correlations between the five subscales of the *Marianismo* Beliefs Scale for an ideal and current partner, Relationship Satisfaction, and CTS-2 physical aggression, CTS-2 psychological aggression, and CTS-2 sexual aggression. Ideal and current Subordinate to Others (r = - .30 p < .01; r = -.16, p < .01) and Self-Silencing were negatively related to Relationship Satisfaction (r = - .30, p < .01; r = -.29, p < .01). Spiritual Pillar for ideal

partner was negatively related to Relationship Satisfaction (r = - .12, p < .05), and current partner Family Pillar was positively related to Relationship Satisfaction (r = .29, p < .01). Likelihood of endorsing CTS-2 physical aggression was positively related to higher scores for ideal partner Virtuous and Chaste, Subordinate to Others, Self-Silencing, and Spiritual Pillar, and current partner Subordinate to Others, Self-Silencing (rs = .12 to .31, p < .01). Ideal partner Virtuous and Chaste and Spiritual Pillar, and current partner Family Pillar, Virtuous and Chaste, Subordinate to Other, and Spiritual Pillar were negatively associated with endorsement of CTS-2 psychological aggression (rs = -.11 to -21, p < .05). Ideal partner Subordinate to Others, Self-Silencing, Spiritual Pillar, and current partner Subordinate to Others and Self-Silencing were positively related to CTS-2 sexual aggression (rs = .18 to .27, p < .01).

Table 3.10 shows correlations between own and perceived partner endorsement of *Machismo* and *Caballerismo*, Relationship Satisfaction, and CTS-2 physical aggression, CTS-2 psychological aggression, and CTS-2 sexual aggression. Own and perceived partner *Machismo* were negatively correlated with Relationship Satisfaction (r = - .38, p < .01; r = -.33, p < .01). and own and perceived partner *Caballerismo* (r = .15, p < .01; r = .20, p < .01) were positively to Relationship Satisfaction. Own and partner's perceived endorsement of *Machismo* were positively related to CTS-2 physical aggression (r = .36, p < .01; r = .34, p < .01), while own and partner's perceived endorsement of *Caballerismo* showed a negative relation with CTS-2 physical aggression (r = - .14, p < .05; r = - .16, p < .05). Own endorsement of *Caballerismo* was also negatively associated to CTS-2 psychological aggression (r = .13, p < .05). Own and perceived partner's endorsement of *Machismo* were positive related to CTS-2 sexual aggression (r = .33, p <

.01; $r = .30$, $p < .01$), while own *Caballerismo* showed a negative relation ($r = -.12$, $p < .05$).

Summary of Correlations. Participants who were older, endorsed more own and partner *Caballerismo* and less own and partner *Machismo*, as well as less ideal and current partner Subordinate to Others and Self-Silencing, showing that in this sample, age was inversely related to more traditional gender role attitudes. Individual income, but not household income, was positively related to measures of gender role attitudes (*Marianismo, Machismo,* and *Caballerismo*). In regard to acculturation measures, those who reported more proficiency in Spanish and those who reported that their partner was Latina had higher endorsement of all *Marianismo* and *Machismo* scales, but not *Caballerismo*. Thus, these results might indicate that those participants who maintain more links to their Latinx culture seem to endorse more traditional gender role attitudes.

Relationship Satisfaction was negatively correlated with a medium effect size to the three CTS-2 scales. The three CTS-2 scales were positively correlated with each other with medium effect sizes. These correlations are in line with expected results of how these variables would relate to each other.

Endorsement of some *Marianismo* scales for ideal and current female partner were negatively associated with Relationship Satisfaction, and positively associated with CTS-2 physical and sexual aggression. Many of the same subscales were negatively related to CTS-2 psychological aggression. *Machismo* and *Caballerismo* had opposite directions in their associations with Relationship Satisfaction and CTS-2 scales; *Machismo* was related to lower Relationship Satisfaction, and more CTS-2 physical and sexual aggression.

Models – Main Analyses

Model 1 – *Marianismo* Beliefs Scale Discrepancies. The first set of hypotheses states that: 1) higher perception-partner ideal discrepancy regarding *Marianismo* (specifically when participants report that it is important for them that their partners meet *Marianismo's* different characteristics, and report that their partners do not meet these expectations) would be associated with higher rates of IPV male perpetration. 2) The high perception-partner ideal discrepancy regarding *Marianismo* would be related to low relationship satisfaction. 3) Low levels of relationship satisfaction would be related to higher rates of IPV perpetration and would mediate the association between perception-partner ideal discrepancy regarding *Marianismo* and IPV perpetration.

Discrepancy scores were computed for each of the five subscales of the *Marianismo* Beliefs Scale to test the Model 1 hypotheses. Additionally, discrepancy scores were separated between positive and negative discrepancies. (See the earlier section Computation of Discrepancy Scores in method section for a detailed explanation.) Tables 3.11. presents Pearson Correlations between the variables used in models to test main hypotheses (i.e., each discrepancy score for *Mariansimo* subscales, Relationship Satisfaction, and the three CTS-2 aggression scales).

Testing Relationship Satisfaction as Mediator of the Effect of Marianismo Discrepancy on IPV Perpetration. Model 1 proposed the hypothesis that relationship Satisfaction functioned as a mediator between the discrepancy between ideal and current partner *Marianismo* scores and perpetration of IPV. More specifically, more discrepancy in *Marianismo* would be associated with lower Relationship Satisfaction, and lower Relationship would be associated with higher endorsement of CTS-2 subscales. To test

this hypothesis, separate models were run for the positive and negative discrepancies of the five subscales of the *Marianismo* Belief Scale, with the discrepancy score entered as the X variables in the mediational model, Relationship Satisfaction as the mediator (M), and each subscale of CTS-2 as an outcome variable (Y). A total of 30 models were evaluated in total (10 discrepancy scores by 3 CTS-2 outcome variables).

Tables 3.8. was reviewed to identify potential covariates. Table 3.8. presents Pearson correlations between demographic, acculturation measures, and Relationship Satisfaction, and CTS-2. The variables age, relationship type, being a student and having a Latina partner were entered as covariates on all the models because these variables were significantly associated with either Relationship Satisfaction or CTS-2 aggression subscales. Age was related to CTS-2 physical and sexual aggression; relationship type was related CTS-2 psychological aggression, being a student was related to Relationship Satisfaction and CTS-2 psychological aggression; lastly, having a Latina partner was related CTS-2 sexual aggression. For foreign-born participants, the number of years living in the US was correlated with CTS-2 physical and sexual aggression. However, the variable of years living in the US was not included as a covariate because the models would have only included foreign-born participants.

In this document, I report detailed results for models where a mediational effect of Relationship satisfaction between *Marianismo* subscales discrepancy and IPV outcomes was significant. Results for non-significant models will be reported in Appendix E.

Positive Discrepancies of Marianismo Beliefs Subscales - Significant Models. A mediation model for the positive discrepancy of the subscale Virtuous and Chaste showed that Relationship Satisfaction functioned as a mediator between the positive discrepancy

of Virtuous and Chaste and CTS-2 physical aggression. Results of all models will present unstandardized regression coefficient, *SE*, and C.I.s based on bootstrapped results. Values for *p, z,* and *t*, are not produced by the bootstrap procedure and are based on non-bootstrapped output. Regression coefficients for the effect of X (discrepancy scores) on M (Relationship Satisfaction) are unstandardized betas and confidence intervals are in the same regular metric. Effects of X (discrepancy scores), M (Relationship Satisfaction), and the indirect effect (mediation) on Y (CST-2 aggression) are presented as regression coefficients (*b*) and confidence intervals reported on log-odds metric. Additionally, all the log-odds regression coefficients are transformed and reported as odds ratios OR (OR = $e^{(b)}$).

Virtuous and Chaste and CTS-2 Physical Aggression. As displayed in Figure 3.2 the results of this model show that discrepancy score of Virtuous and Chaste had a direct effect on Relationship Satisfaction (b_1 = -0.2824, *SE* = 0.073, *t* = -3.37; *p* = .0116; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [- 0.417, - 0.130]). Relationship Satisfaction had a direct effect on CTS-2 physical aggression (b_2 = -0.9761, *SE* = 0.2471, OR = 0.377, *z* = -4.289; *p* < .0001; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [- 1.566, - 0.584]), but discrepancy score of Virtuous and Chaste had no direct effect on CTS-2 physical aggression (b_1 = 0.1818, *SE* = 0.2582, OR = 1.199, *z* = .7870; *p* > 0.05; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [- 0.108, - 0.015]). Results show that there is an indirect effect of Virtuous and Chaste discrepancy on CTS-2 physical aggression through Relationship Satisfaction (*b* = .2757, *SE* = 0.1016, OR = 1.317; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [0.115, 0.519]). The results of this model support the hypotheses presented in Model 1.

Virtuous and Chaste and CTS-2 Psychological Aggression. A mediation model for the positive discrepancy of the subscale Virtuous and Chaste showed that Relationship Satisfaction functioned as a mediator between the Virtuous and Chaste positive discrepancy and CTS-2 psychological aggression. As displayed in Figure 3.3. the results of this model show that discrepancy score of Virtuous and Chaste had a direct effect on Relationship Satisfaction (b_1 = -0.282, *SE* = 0.073, t = -3.37; $p < .001$; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [- 0.419, - 0.129]). Relationship Satisfaction had a direct effect on CTS-2 psychological aggression (b_2 = -1.020, *SE* = 0.374, OR = 0.361, z = -3.813; $p <$ .001; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-1.976, -0.481]), but Virtuous and Chaste discrepancy had no direct effect on CTS-2 physical aggression (b_1 = 0.201, *SE* = .3285, OR = 1.223, z = .700; $p > 0.05$; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-0.395, 0.900]). Results show that there is an indirect effect of Virtuous and Chaste discrepancy on CTS-2 psychological aggression through Relationship Satisfaction (b = 0.288, *SE* = 0.143, OR = 1.334; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [0.0962, 0.6604]). The results of this model support the hypotheses presented in Model 1.

Virtuous and Chaste and CTS-2 Sexual Aggression. A mediation model for the positive discrepancy of the subscale Virtuous and Chaste showed that Relationship Satisfaction functioned as a mediator between the Virtuous and Chaste positive discrepancy and CTS-2 sexual aggression. As displayed in Figure 3.4., the results of this model show that discrepancy score of Virtuous and Chaste had a direct effect on Relationship Satisfaction (b_1 = -0.282, *SE* = 0.073, t = -3.37; $p < .001$; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [- 0.423, -0.129]). Relationship Satisfaction had a direct effect on CTS-2 sexual aggression (b_2 = - .695, *SE* = 0.222, OR = 0.499, z = -3.380; $p < .001$; 95% boot-strapped

C.I. [- 1.201,-0.330]), but Virtuous and Chaste discrepancy had no direct effect on CTS-2 sexual aggression (b_1 = 0.235, *SE* = .325, OR = 1.265, z = 1.038; $p > 0.05$; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-0.245, 0.6892]). Results show an indirect effect of Virtuous and Chaste discrepancy on CTS-2 sexual aggression through Relationship Satisfaction (b = 0.196, *SE* = 0.084, OR = 1.217; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [0.063, 0.399]). The results of this model support the hypotheses presented in Model 1.

Subordinate to Others and CTS-2 Physical Aggression. A mediation model for the positive discrepancy of the subscale Subordinate to Others showed that Relationship Satisfaction functioned as a mediator between the positive discrepancy of Subordinate to Others and CTS-2 physical aggression. As displayed in Figure 3.5., the results of this model show Subordinate to Others discrepancy had a direct effect on Relationship Satisfaction (b_1 = -.277, *SE* = .096, t = -2.570; $p < .05$; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [- 0.461, -0.084]). Relationship Satisfaction has a direct effect on CTS-2 physical aggression (b_2 = -1.273, *SE* = 0.450, OR = 0.280, z = - 4.094; $p < .001$; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [- 2.441, -0.667]), but Subordinate to Others discrepancy had no direct effect on CTS-2 physical aggression (b_1 = 0.211, *SE* = 0.3416, OR = 1.235, z = -2.743; $p > 0.05$; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-0.438, 0.904]). Results show that there is an indirect effect of Subordinate to Others discrepancy on CTS-2 physical aggression through Relationship Satisfaction (b = 0.287, *SE* = 0.129, OR = 1.332; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [0.086, 0.596]). The results of this model support the hypotheses presented in Model 1.

Subordinate to Others and CTS-2 Psychological Aggression. A mediation model for the positive discrepancy of the subscale Subordinate to Others showed that Relationship Satisfaction functioned as a mediator between the positive discrepancy of

Subordinate to Others and CTS-2 psychological aggression. As displayed in Figure 3.6., the results of this model show that Subordinate to Others discrepancy had a direct effect on Relationship Satisfaction (b_1 = -0.277, 0.51 *SE* = 0.100, t = -2.570; $p < .05$; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-0.460, -0.084]). Relationship Satisfaction had a direct effect on CTS-2 psychological aggression (b_2 = -1.273, *SE* = 0.450, OR = 0.280, z = - 4.094; $p < .001$; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-2.441, -.667]), but Subordinate to Others discrepancy had no direct effect on CTS-2 psychological aggression (b_1 = 0.175, *SE* = 0.367, OR = 1.191, z = 0.538; $p > 0.05$; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [- 0.507, 0.947]). Results show that there is an indirect effect of Subordinate to Others discrepancy on CTS-2 psychological aggression through Relationship Satisfaction (b = 0.353, *SE* = 0.209, OR = 1.423; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [0.087, 0.810]). The results of this model support the hypotheses presented in Model 1.

Subordinate to Others and CTS-2 Sexual Aggression. A mediation model for the positive discrepancy of the subscale Subordinate to Others showed that Relationship Satisfaction functioned as a mediator between the positive discrepancy of Subordinate to Others CTS-2 sexual aggression. As displayed in Figure 3.7., the results of this model show that Subordinate to Others discrepancy had a direct effect on Relationship Satisfaction (b_1 = -0.277, *SE* = 0.098, t = -2.570; $p < .05$; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-0.467, -0.077]). Relationship Satisfaction had a direct effect on CTS-2 sexual aggression (b_2 = -0.677, *SE* = 0.231, OR = 0.508, z = -3.207; $p < .01$; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-1.212, -.291]), but Subordinate to Others discrepancy had no direct effect on CTS-2 physical aggression (b_1 = 0.078, *SE* = 0.284, OR = 1.081, z = 0.288; $p > 0.05$; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-0.486, 0.630]). Results show an indirect effect of Subordinate to Others

discrepancy on CTS-2 sexual aggression through Relationship Satisfaction (b = 0.196, SE = 0.084, OR = 1.217; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [0.063, 0.399]). The results of this model support the hypotheses presented in Model 1.

Positive Discrepancies of Marianismo Beliefs Subscales - Non-Significant Models. Models were not significant for the mediation effect of Relationship Satisfaction between the positive discrepancy of Family Pillar, Self-Silencing, Spiritual Pillar, and any of the three CTS-2 subscales. (Summaries of non-statistical results are presented in Appendix E)

Negative Discrepancies of Marianismo Beliefs Subscales – Non-Significant Models. Fifteen models were evaluated using the five negative discrepancies for the *Marianismo* Beliefs Scale as X variables in the models. Negative discrepancies result when participants report that their current partner exceeds their expectations of an ideal partner. These models evaluated the mediation effect of Relationship Satisfaction between the negative discrepancies for the subscales of the *Marianismo* Beliefs Scale and the three CTS-2 scales (Y variable in model). None of the fifteen models showed a significant mediational effect of Relationship Satisfaction. The results are presented in Appendix E.

Summary of Results of Marianismo Discrepancies. The current results partially support the hypothesis that Relationship Satisfaction would mediate the association between the positive discrepancies of *Marianismo* scales and CTS-2 aggression scales. Results supporting this hypothesis were identified for the subscales of Virtuous and Chaste and Subordinate to Others. Relationship Satisfaction mediated the association between the positive discrepancies of these two *Marianismo* scales and the 3 CTS-2

aggression scales (i.e., physical, psychological, and sexual). The models for the other three scales of *Marianismo:* Family Pillar, Spiritual Pillar, and Self-Silencing did not support the Model 1 hypotheses; Relationship Satisfaction did not mediate the association between positive discrepancies of these three *Marianismo* scales and CTS-2 aggression scales.

Relationship Satisfaction did not mediate the association between negative discrepancies of *Marianismo* scales and CTS-2 aggression scales. The current study had not proposed any hypotheses for negative discrepancy scores. Thus, these results do not support or fail to support current hypotheses.

Model 2 - *Machismo* and *Caballerismo*. The central hypotheses state that 1) higher discrepancy in the endorsement of *Machismo* (men's high endorsement and their perception of their female partner's low endorsement) would be associated with higher rates of IPV male perpetration. 2) The high discrepancy in the endorsement of *Machismo* would be related to low relationship satisfaction. 3) Low levels of relationship satisfaction would be related to higher rates of IPV perpetration and would mediate the association between discrepancy in the endorsement of *machismo* and IPV perpetration.

To test the model 2 hypotheses, discrepancy scores were computed for *Machismo.* Additionally, discrepancy scores were separated between positive and negative discrepancies.

Furthermore, exploratory analyses were proposed for the measure of *Caballerismo* to evaluate how it relates to Relationship Satisfaction and the CTS-2 subscales. Thus, discrepancy scores were calculated between own and perceived partner's *Caballerismo*. The discrepancy scores were separated into positive and negative. (See

earlier section Computation of Discrepancy Scores for a detailed explanation.) The same model as the one proposed for *Machismo* was used for *Caballerismo*. The model evaluated whether a higher discrepancy in the endorsement of *Caballerismo* (men's high endorsement and their perception of their female partner's low endorsement) would be associated with higher rates of IPV male perpetration. 2) The high discrepancy in the endorsement of *Caballerismo* would be related to low relationship satisfaction. 3) Low levels of relationship satisfaction would be related to higher rates of IPV perpetration and would mediate the association between discrepancy in the endorsement of *Caballerismo* and IPV perpetration**.** Table 3.11. shows Pearson Correlations variables in model 2 (i.e., positive and negative discrepancy scores for *Machismo* and *Caballerismo*, Relationship Satisfaction, and CTS-2 scales).

In this document, I report detailed results for models where the mediational effect of Relationship Satisfaction between a discrepancy score of *Caballerismo* or *Machismo* and IPV outcomes was significant. Results for non-significant models are included in the Appendix E.

Positive Discrepancies of Machismo and Caballerismo - Significant Models.

***Caballerismo* and CTS-2 *Physical Aggression*.** A mediation model for the positive discrepancy of *Caballerismo* showed that Relationship Satisfaction functioned as a mediator between the *Caballerismo* positive discrepancy and CTS-2 physical aggression. Results of all models will present unstandardized regression coefficient, *SE*, and C.I.s based on bootstrapped results. Values for *p, z,* and *t*, are not produced by the bootstrap procedure and are based on non-bootstrapped output. Regression coefficients for the effect of X (discrepancy scores) on M (Relationship Satisfaction) are

unstandardized betas and confidence intervals are in the same regular metric. Effects of X (discrepancy scores), M (Relationship Satisfaction), and the indirect effect (mediation) on Y (CST-2 aggression) are presented as regression coefficients (*b*) and confidence intervals reported on log-odds metric. Additionally, all the log-odds regression coefficients are transformed and reported as odds ratios OR (OR = $e^{(b)}$).

As displayed in Figure 3.8., the results of this model show that *Caballerismo* discrepancy had a direct effect on Relationship Satisfaction (b_1 = -0.272, *SE* = 0.114, *t* = -2.476; *p* < .05; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-0.514, -0.066]). Relationship Satisfaction had a direct effect on CTS-2 physical aggression (b_2 = -0.891, *SE* = 0.224, OR = 0.410, *z* = -4.407; *p* < .001; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-1.414, -0.529]), but *Caballerismo* discrepancy had no direct effect on CTS-2 physical aggression (b_1 = -0.093, *SE* = 0.336, OR = 0.911; *z* = -.307; *p* > 0.05; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-0.809, 0.529]). Results show that there is an indirect effect of *Caballerismo* discrepancy on CTS-2 physical aggression through Relationship Satisfaction (*b* = 0.2420, *SE* = 0.129, OR = 1.274; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [0.054, 0.555]).

Caballerismo and CTS-2 Psychological Aggression. A mediation model for the positive discrepancy of *Caballerismo* showed that Relationship Satisfaction functioned as a mediator between the *Caballerismo* discrepancy and CTS-2 psychological aggression. As displayed in Figure 3.9., the results of this model show that *Caballerismo* discrepancy had a direct effect on Relationship Satisfaction (b_1 = -0.267, *SE* = 0.116, *t* = -2.438; *p* < .05; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-0.510, -0.057]). Relationship Satisfaction had a direct effect on CTS-2 psychological aggression (b_2 = -0.798, *SE* = 0.307, OR = 0.450, *z* = -3.4631; *p* < .001; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-1.542, -0.352]), but *Caballerismo* discrepancy had no

direct effect on CTS-2 psychological aggression (b_1 = -0.094, *SE* = 0.352, OR = 0.910, *z* = -0.319; $p > 0.05$; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-0.712, 0.671]). Results show that there is an indirect effect of *Caballerismo* discrepancy on CTS-2 psychological aggression through Relationship Satisfaction (*b* = 0.213, *SE* = 0.136, OR = 1.237; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [0.038, 0.561]). Regression coefficients and confidence intervals are reported on log-odds metric.

Caballerismo and CTS-2 Sexual Aggression. A mediation model for the positive discrepancy of the subscale *Caballerismo* showed that Relationship Satisfaction functioned as a mediator between *Caballerismo* discrepancy and CTS-2 sexual aggression. As displayed in Figure 3.10., the results of this model show that *Caballerismo* discrepancy had a direct effect on Relationship Satisfaction (b_1 = -0.277, *SE* = 0.116, *t* = -2.438; $p < .05$; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-0.517, -0.061]). Relationship Satisfaction had a direct effect on CTS-2 sexual aggression (b_2 = -0.640, *SE* = 0.213, OR = 0.527, *z* = -3.328; $p < .01$; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-1.127, -0.275]), but discrepancy score of *Caballerismo* had no direct effect on CTS-2 physical aggression (b_1 = 0.150, *SE* = 0.303, OR = 1.162, *z* = 0.514; $p > 0.05$; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-0.480, 0.747]). Results show an indirect effect of discrepancy score of *Caballerismo* on CTS-2 sexual aggression through Relationship Satisfaction (*b* = 0.171, *SE* = .101, OR = 1.186; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [0.030, 0.426]).

Positive Discrepancies of Machismo and Caballerismo - Non-Significant Models. Models were not significant for a mediation effect of Relationship Satisfaction between positive discrepancy of *Machismo* and any of the three CTS-2 subscales (See Appendix E)

Negative Discrepancies of Machismo and Caballerismo - Significant Models.

Caballerismo and CTS-2 Sexual Aggression. A mediation model for the negative discrepancy of *Caballerismo* showed that Relationship Satisfaction functioned as a mediator between *Caballerismo* discrepancy score and CTS-2 sexual aggression. As displayed in Figure 3.11., the results of this model show that *Caballerismo* discrepancy had a direct effect on Relationship Satisfaction (b_1 = -0.272, *SE* = 0.114, *t* = -1.803; *p* > 0.05; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-0.767, -0.007]). Relationship Satisfaction had a direct effect on CTS-2 sexual aggression (b_2 = -0.847, *SE* = 0.238, OR = 0.429, *z* = -3.518; *p* < .001; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-1.371, -0.429]), but *Caballerismo* discrepancy had no direct effect on CTS-2 sexual aggression (b_1 = -0.012, *SE* = 0.603, OR = 0.988, *z* = -0.020; *p* > 0.05; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-1.205, 1.297]). Results show that there is an indirect effect of *Caballerismo* discrepancy on CTS-2 sexual aggression through Relationship Satisfaction (*b* = 0.325, *SE* = 0.187, OR = 1.384; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [0.004, 0.745]). Regression coefficients and confidence intervals are reported on log-odds metric. Unstandardized regression coefficient, *SE*, and C.I.s are based on bootstrapped results. Values for *p, z,* and *t*, are not produced by the bootstrap procedure and are based on non-bootstrapped output.

Negative Discrepancies of Machismo and Caballerismo – Non-Significant Models. Models were not significant for a mediation effect of Relationship Satisfaction between negative discrepancy of *Machismo* and any of the three CTS-2 subscales. Additionally, Models were not significant for a mediation effect of Relationship Satisfaction between negative discrepancy of *Caballerismo* and CTS-2 physical or psychological aggression (See Appendix E).

Summary of Results of *Machismo* and *Caballerismo* Discrepancies. The results did not find that Relationship Satisfaction functions as a mediator for the association between positive discrepancies of *Machismo* and CST-2 aggression scales; therefore, the results do not support the hypothesis proposed for Model 2.

There were no hypotheses for how discrepancies in the endorsement of *Caballerismo* would relate to CST-2; thus, the current study proposed exploratory analyses for this measure. The current study identified that Relationship Satisfaction functions as a mediator between the positive discrepancy of *Caballerismo* and the three CTS-2 aggression scales (i.e., physical, psychological, and sexual). Additionally, results indicated that Relationship Satisfaction functions as a mediator between negative discrepancy of *Caballerismo* and CTS-2 sexual aggression.

The current study had not proposed hypotheses related to negative discrepancies (only positives) for *Machismo* or *Caballerismo.* The results did not find that Relationship Satisfaction mediated the association between negative discrepancies of *Machismo* and any of the CTS-2 scales, or the association between negative discrepancies of *Caballerismo* and CTS-2 physical or psychological aggression. These results do not support or fail to support any hypotheses of Model 2

Table 3.1 *Descriptive Statistics of Demographics and Acculturation*

Measure	*n*	(valid %)	*M*	*SD*	Range
Demographics					
Age			40.0	11.17	18 - 73
<20	1	0.3			
21-30	50	15.9			
31-40	149	47.3			
41-50	57	18.1			
51-60	31	9.8			
61-70	24	7.6			
70+	2	0.6			
Race					
White	236	74.9			
Black of African American	23	7.3			
American Indian or Alaska Native	9	2.9			
Other	47	14.9			
Relationship Type					
Committed relationship with my partner	14	4.4			
Living with my partner	32	10.2			
Married	269	85.4			
Individual Income					
$0 - 20000	32	10.2			
$20000 - 40000	56	17.8			

$40000 - 60000	78	24.8			
$60000 - 80000	56	17.8			
$80000 - 100000	35	11.1			
$100000 or more	58	18.4			
Household Income					
$0 - 20000	27	8.6			
$20000 - 40000	40	12.7			
$40000 - 60000	59	18.7			
$60000 - 80000	49	15.6			
$80000 - 100000	56	17.8			
$100000 or more	84	26.7			
Employment					
Unemployed	15	4.8			
Measure	*n*	(valid %)	*M*	*SD*	Range
Retired	26	8.3			
In school	5	1.6			
Disability	8	2.5			
Volunteer	0	0.0			
In job training	0	0.0			
Employed part-time	18	5.7			
Employed full-time	249	79.0			
Other: Self-employed	5	1.6			
Student					
Yes	40	12.7			

No	275	87.3
Education Degree Pursuing (N=40)		
GED or high school	9	22.5
Four-year college degree	9	22.5
Community college degree	5	12.5
Vocational or technical degree	6	15.0
Post-college degree/ Graduate school	11	27.5
Acculturation		
US born		
US born	263	83.5
Foreign born	52	16.5
Immigration Generation Status (US born n=263)		
At least one of your parents was born outside the US	134	51.0
At least one of your grand-parents was born outside the US	69	26.2
All my parents and grand-parents were born in the US	60	22.8
Immigration Generation Status- Entire Sample		
First Generation	52	16.5
Second Generation	134	42.5
Third Generation	69	21.9
Fourth Generation	60	19.0

Measure	*n*	(valid %)	*M*	*SD*	Range
Years living in the US (Foreign born n=50)	50		28.28	17.19	1-60
<10	5	10.0			
10-19	11	22.0			
20-29	15	30.0			
30-39	8	16.0			
40-49	1	2.0			
50 or more	10	20.0			
Language Proficiency					
Only English	71	22.5			
English better than Spanish	86	27.3			
Both equally	146	46.3			
Spanish better than English	12	3.8			
Partner Acculturation					
Latina Partner					
Latina partner	226	71.7			
Non-Latina partner	89	28.3			
Partner - US born					
US born	255	81.0			
Foreign born	60	19.0			
Immigration Generation Status (US born partner n=250)					
At least one of your parents was born	107	42.0			

	outside the US					
was	At least one of your grand-parents born outside the US	42	16.5			
were	All my parents and grand-parents born in the US	106	41.6			
Years living in the US (Foreign born Partner n=60)				21.95	15.20	1-63
	<10	5	10.0			
	10-19	11	22.0			
	20-29	15	30.0			
	30-39	8	16.0			
	40-49	1	2.0			
	50 or more	10	20.0			

Measure	*n*	(valid %)	*M*	*SD*	Range
Language Proficiency- (Only Latina Partner n=83)					
Only English	32	14.2			
English better than Spanish	50	22.1			
Both equally	118	52.2			
Spanish better than English	22	9.7			

Table 3.2. *Descriptive Statistics Main Study Variables*

	n	Min.	Max.	*Mean or %*	*SD*	Skewness	Kurtosis	Cronbach Alpha
Relationship Satisfaction (reversed coded so that higher scores as closer to *"All the time")*	315	1.86	6.00	4.75	0.85	-1.147	0.950	0.810
0= All the Time to 5 = Never								
CTS-2 Aggression (Continuous Subscales)								
0 = Never to 5 =10 or more times								
Physical	314	0.00	4.58	0.27	0.77	3.714	13.892	0.966
Psychological	315	0.00	4.38	0.66	0.92	2.002	4.085	0.893
Sexual	313	0.00	4.43	0.45	0.84	2.730	7.924	0.850
CTS-2 Aggression (Dichotomous Subscales)								
0 = Never or not in the past year 1 = At least one item endorsed in the previous year								
Physical	314			30.9%				
Psychological	315			67.0%				
Sexual	313			44.1%				

Marianismo Scales -Ideal Partner								
1= Very Unimportant to 7 = Very Important								
	Family Pillar	315	2.80	7.00	5.67	1.00	-0.595	-0.251	0.745
	Virtuous and Chaste	314	1.20	7.00	4.79	1.47	-0.275	-0.891	0.795
	Subordinate to Others	315	1.00	7.00	3.83	1.65	0.106	-0.917	0.842
	Self-Silencing	314	1.00	7.00	3.54	1.56	0.430	-0.615	0.838
	Spiritual Pillar	315	1.00	7.00	4.57	1.83	-0.471	-0.831	0.898

	n	Min.	Max.	*Mean or %*	*SD*	Skewness	Kurtosis	Cronbach Alpha
Marianismo Scales - Current Partner								
1= Strongly Disagree to 7 = Strongly Agree								
	Family Pillar	294	1.20	7.00	5.53	1.15	-0.603	-0.077	0.820
	Virtuous and Chaste	312	1.60	7.00	4.83	1.36	-0.123	-0.754	0.795
	Subordinate to Others	312	1.00	7.00	3.91	1.53	0.173	-0.611	0.830
	Self-Silencing	312	1.00	7.00	3.69	1.39	0.403	-0.451	0.779
	Spiritual Pillar	315	1.00	7.00	4.49	1.87	-0.376	-0.905	0.908

Male Gender Roles								
1=Very Strongly Disagree to 7=Very Strongly Agree								
Machismo Own Opinion	315	1.00	7.00	3.77	1.37	0.363	-0.262	0.891
Caballerismo Own Opinion	315	2.60	7.00	6.15	0.76	-1.495	2.937	0.847
Machismo Partner Opinion	314	1.20	7.00	3.95	1.38	0.288	-0.560	0.887
Caballerismo Partners Opinion	314	3.00	7.00	6.01	0.88	-1.022	0.416	0.883

Table 3.3. *Frequencies of Discrepancy Types*

Subscale Name		Positive Discrepancy n (%)	No discrepancy n (%)	Negative Discrepancy n (%)
Marianismo Scales				
	Family Pillar	124 (42.3)	61 (20.8)	108 (36.9)
	Virtuous and Chaste	123 (39.5)	62 (19.9)	126 (40.5)
	Subordinate to Others	125 (40.1)	38 (12.2)	149 (47.8)
	Self-Silencing	107 (34.4)	39 (12.5)	165 (53.1)
	Spiritual Pillar	129 (41.1)	80 (25.5)	105 (33.7)
Machismo		121 (38.7)	28 (8.9)	164 (52.5)
Caballerismo		141 (45.0)	115 (36.7)	57 (18.2)

Table 3.4. *Descriptive Statistics Gender Role Attitudes Discrepancies*

	n	Min	Max	Mean	*SD*	Skewness	Kurtosis
Positive Discrepancies							
Marianismo Subscales							
Family Pillar	186	0.00	3.40	0.62	0.701	1.316	0.355
Virtuous and Chaste	185	0.00	4.20	0.63	0.759	1.804	4.280
Subordinate to Others	163	0.00	3.00	0.64	0.659	1.211	1.108
Self-Silencing	146	0.00	2.67	0.57	0.610	1.317	1.303
Spiritual Pillar	209	0.00	5.33	0.64	0.852	2.210	6.566
Machismo	150	0.00	2.40	0.42	0.464	1.667	2.866
Caballerismo	198	0.00	2.90	0.42	0.573	1.934	3.472
Negative Discrepancies (Absolute Values)							
Marianismo Subscales							
Family Pillar	169	0.00	3.40	0.40	0.558	2.588	9.021
Virtuous and Chaste	188	0.00	3.20	0.66	0.775	1.289	0.950
Subordinate to Others	187	0.00	3.60	0.69	0.673	1.272	1.836
Self-Silencing	204	0.00	3.50	0.67	0.689	1.556	2.757
Spiritual Pillar	186	0.00	6.00	0.59	0.897	2.606	8.973
Machismo	192	0.00	3.30	0.63	0.643	1.545	2.380
Caballerismo	173	0.00	2.20	0.22	0.296	2.861	12.822

Table 3.5. *Correlations between Demographic and main Acculturation Variables*

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Age	--									
2. Relationship type	.13*	--								
3. Individual Income	.01	.17**	--							
4. Household Income	-.04	.12*	.74**	--						
5. Student (Y/N)	-.28**	-.03	-.19**	-.22**	--					
6. US Born (Y/N)	-.12*	-.09	-.02	.00	.17**	--				
7. Immigration Generation Status	-.08	-.12*	-.09	-.05	.03	.65**	--			
8. Foreign Born. Years living in the US.	.83**	.10	-.15	-.18	.c	.c	.c	--		
9. Language proficiency	-.14*	.04	.21**	.21**	0.0	-.31**	-.42**	-.38**	--	
10. Hispanic Partner (Y/N)	-.26**	.00	.04	-.03	.13*	-.07	-.11	-.10	.39**	--

Note: Pearson Correlations; * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$ (two-tailed). [c] Indicates that one of the variables was constant.

Table 3.6. *Correlations between Demographic and Acculturation Variables and Gender Role Attitudes*

	Age	Relationship type	Ind. Income	House. Income	Student (Y/N)	US Born (Y/N)	Immig. Generation Status	Years Living in the US	Lang. proficiency	Latina Partner (Y/N)
Ideal Partner										
Family Pillar	.04	.11*	.15**	.08	.08	-.11	-.15**	.19	.21**	.21**
Virtuous and Chaste	.02	.13*	.20**	.04	.14*	-.03	-.05	.20	.21**	.30**
Subordinate to Others	-.15**	.04	.13*	.02	.18**	.06	-.01	-.26	.25**	.33**
Self-Silencing	-.14*	.07	.08	-.04	.17**	.07	.00	-.17	.24**	.34**
Spiritual Pillar	-.01	.05	.11	.01	.17**	-.07	-.13*	.26	.29**	.38**
Current Partner										
Family Pillar	.07	.18**	.18**	.12*	-.01	-.14*	-.11	.30*	.18**	.17**
Virtuous and Chaste	.01	.20**	.19**	.05	.19**	-.12*	-.17**	.18	.23**	.29**
Subordinate to Others	-.18**	.08	.12*	-.01	.21**	-.02	-.05	-.18	.25**	.35**
Self-Silencing	-.13*	.07	.11*	.01	.18**	.03	-.07	-.09	.24**	.34**
Spiritual Pillar	.00	.13*	.22**	.09	.10	-.08	-.15**	.22	.29**	.38**

Male Gender Roles – Own and Perceived Partner Opinion

Machismo Own	-.14*	.03	.22**	.14*	.09	.06	.03	-.13	.24**	.24**
Caballerismo Own	.14*	.07	.08	-.01	-.05	-.14*	-.10	.33*	.11	.01
Machismo Partner	-.13*	.01	.21**	.09	.10	.07	.03	-.12	.22**	.27**
Caballerismo Partners	.15**	.13*	.13*	.04	.02	-.08	-.05	.17	.04	.04

Note 1: Pearson Correlations; * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$ (two-tailed). [c] Indicates that one of the variables was constant.
Note 2: Pearson Correlations between demographic and acculturation measures are presented in Table 3.5. Pearson Correlations between Gender Role Attitudes scales are presented in Table 3.7.

Table 3.7. *Correlations between Marianismo Beliefs Scales, Machismo, and Caballerismo*

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
Ideal Partner														
1. Family Pillar	--													
2. Virtuous and Chaste	.54**	--												
3. Subordinate to Others	.32**	.63**	--											
4. Self-Silencing	.30**	.58**	.83**	--										
5. Spiritual Pillar	.55**	.68**	.61**	.59**	--									
Current Partner														
6. Family Pillar	.66**	.41**	.20**	.22**	.43**	--								
7. Virtuous and Chaste	.51**	.70**	.46**	.42**	.59**	.55**	--							
8. Subordinate to Others	.32**	.58**	.80**	.72**	.54**	.34**	.57**	--						
9. Self-Silencing	.27**	.58**	.75**	.80**	.51**	.24**	.48**	.78**	--					
10. Spiritual Pillar	.51**	.59**	.48**	.47**	.79**	.58**	.67**	.55**	.50**	--				
Male Gender Roles														
11. *Machismo* Own	.24**	.42**	.65**	.56**	.41**	.13*	.27**	.56**	.52**	.36**	--			
12. *Caballerismo* Own	.43**	.28**	.05	.04	.17**	.45**	.31**	.13*	-.01	.24**	.09	--		
13. *Machismo* Partner	.29**	.44**	.70**	.63**	.47**	.20**	.31**	.62**	.60**	.40**	.83**	.07	--	
14. *Caballerismo* Partner	.49**	.23**	.00	-.03	.16**	.55**	.34**	.09	-.07	.25**	.08	.73**	.08	--

Note: Pearson Correlations; * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$ (two-tailed).

Table 3.8. *Correlations between Demographics, Acculturation, Relationship Satisfaction, and CTS-2 Scales.*

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1. Age	--												
2. Relationship type	.13*	--											
3. Individual Income	.00	.17**	--										
4. Household Income	-.04	.12*	.74**	--									
5. Student (Y/N)	-.28**	-.03	-.19**	-.22**	--								
6. US Born (Y/N)	-.12*	-.09	-.02	.00	.17**	--							
7. Immigration Generation Status	-.08	-.12*	-.09	-.05	.03	.65**	--						
8. Years Living in the US	.83**	.10	-.15	-.18	.[c]	.[c]	.[c]	--					
9. Hispanic Partner (Y/N)	-.26**	.00	.04	-.03	.13*	-.07	-.11	-.10	--				
10. Relationship Satisfaction	.07	.06	.02	.03	-.13*	-0.05	.05	.24	-.01	--			
11. CTS-2 Physical Aggression	-.18**	-.02	.08	.08	.10	.05	-.03	-.35*	.10	-.38**	--		
12. CTS-2 Psychological Aggression	-.07	-.16**	-.03	.02	-.14*	.07	.06	-.22	-.05	-.30**	.25**	--	
13. CTS-2 Sexual Aggression	-.23**	-.07	.09	.08	.00	.02	-.06	-.38**	.12*	-.28**	.45**	.32**	--

Note: Pearson Correlations; * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$ (two-tailed). [c] Indicates that one of the variables was constant.

Table 3.9. *Correlations between Marianismo Beliefs Scales, Relationship Satisfaction, and CTS-2 Scales.*

	Marianismo Scales -Ideal Partner					*Marianismo* Scales -Current Partner				
	Family Pillar	Virtuous and Chaste	Subordinate to Others	Self-Silencing	Spiritual Pillar	Family Pillar	Virtuous and Chaste	Subordinate to Others	Self-Silencing	Spiritual Pillar
Relationship Satisfaction	.06	-.09	-.30**	-.30**	-.12*	.21**	.02	-.16**	-.29**	-.01
CTS-2 Physical Aggression	.08	.12*	.31**	.31**	.19**	-.05	.05	.24**	.26**	.05
CTS-2 Psychological Aggression	-.05	-.12*	-.04	-.01	-.11*	-.14*	-.21**	-.12*	-.06	-.17**
CTS-2 Sexual Aggression	.08	.10	.27**	.27**	.15**	-.03	.07	.18**	.21**	.05

Note 1: Pearson Correlations; * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$ (two-tailed).
Note 2: Pearson Correlations between demographic Relationship Satisfaction and CTS-3 scales are reported in Table 3.8. Pearson Correlations between *Marianismo* Beliefs Scales are presented in Table 3.7.

Table 3.10. *Correlations between Male Gender Roles, Relationship Satisfaction, and CTS-2 Scales*

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. *Machismo* Own Opinion	--							
2. *Caballerismo* Own Opinion	.09	--						
3. *Machismo* Partner Opinion	.83**	.07	--					
4. *Caballerismo* Partner Opinion	.08	.73**	.08	--				
5. Relationship Satisfaction	-.38**	.15**	-.32**	.20**	--			
6. CTS-2 Physical Aggression	.36**	-.14*	.34**	-.16**	-.38**	--		
7. CTS-2 Psychological Aggression	.06	-.13*	-.00	-.11	-.30**	.25**	--	
8. CTS-2 Sexual Aggression	.33**	-.12*	.30**	-.11	-.28**	.45**	.32**	--

Note 1: Pearson Correlations; * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$ (two-tailed).

Table 3.11. *Correlations between Discrepancies of Marianismo Scales and Relationship Satisfaction and CTS-2 Scales*

	Positive Discrepancies					Negative Discrepancies (Absolute Value)				
	Family Pillar	Virtuous and Chaste	Subordinate to Others	Self-Silencing	Spiritual Pillar	Family Pillar	Virtuous and Chaste	Subordinate to Others	Self-Silencing	Spiritual Pillar
Relationship Satisfaction	-.15*	-.23**	-.19*	-.07	-.14*	-.09	.07	-.13	-.06	-.03
n	186	185	163	146	209	169	126	187	204	186
CTS-2 Physical Aggression	.09	.11	.08	.17*	.21**	.08	.12	.11	-.06	.15*
n	186	185	163	146	208	169	125	186	204	185
CTS-2 Psychological Aggression	.15*	.17*	.11	.11	.11	-.01	.16	.05	-.04	.02
n	186	185	163	146	209	169	126	187	204	186
CTS-2 Sexual Aggression	.10	.12	.03	.05	.12	.00	.01	.15*	.05	.14
n	186	185	163	146	209	169	124	185	204	184

Pearson Correlations; * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$ (two-tailed).

Note 2: Pearson Correlations between a discrepancy score and Relationship Satisfaction and the CTS-2 subscales were assessed with the sample of participants who had either a positive or a negative discrepancy for that subscale. Therefore, the samples for each discrepancy are different. Sample size is reported for each correlation.

Table 3.12. *Correlations between Machismo and Caballerismo Discrepancies, Relationship Satisfaction, and CTS-2 Scales*

	Machismo Positive Discrepancy	*Caballerismo* Positive Discrepancy	*Machismo* Negative Discrepancy	*Caballerismo* Negative Discrepancy
Relationship Satisfaction	-.04	-.16*	.03	-.11
n	150	198	192	173
CTS-2 Physical Aggression	.00	.04	-.00	.02
n	149	197	192	173
CTS-2 Psychological Aggression	.07	.07	-.03	.13
n	150	198	192	173
CTS-2 Sexual Aggression	.00	.11	-.03	.04
n	148	198	192	171

Note: Pearson Correlations between a discrepancy score and Relationship Satisfaction and the CTS-2 subscales were assessed with the sample of participants who had either a positive or a negative discrepancy for that subscale. Therefore, the samples for each discrepancy are different. Sample size is reported for each correlation.

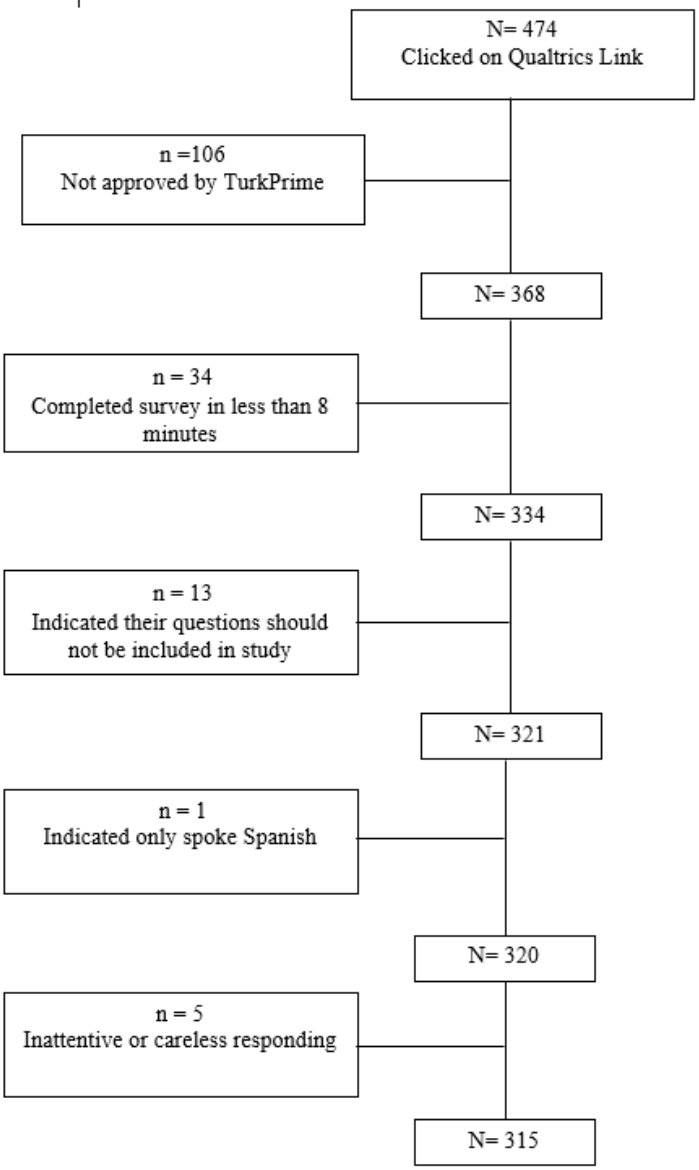

Figure 3.1. Flowchart Identifying Number of Excluded Participants per Exclusion Criterion.

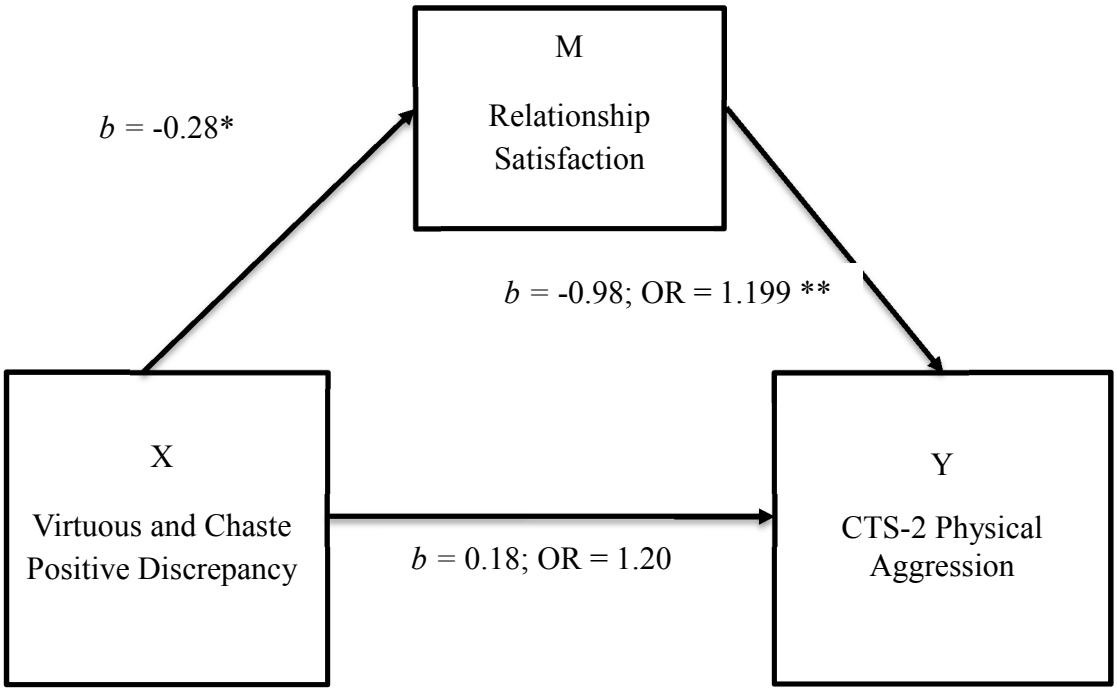

Figure 3.2 Mediation Effect of Relationship Satisfaction between Virtuous and Chaste Discrepancy and Physical IPV.

Note: Regression coefficients for the relation between Virtuous and Chaste Positive Discrepancy and CTS-2 physical aggression as mediated by Relationship Satisfaction. The indirect effect of Virtuous and Chaste Positive Discrepancy on CTS-2 physical aggression is $b = .2757$, OR = 1.317, 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [0.115, 0.519].

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$ (based on parametric tests).

Regression coefficient from discrepancy score to Relationship Satisfaction is unstandardized.

Effects on Y (CTS-2) are reported as regression coefficients (*b*) on log-odds metric and as OR. Confidence intervals are reported on log-odds metric.

Model controls for age, relationship type, being student, and having a Latina partner.

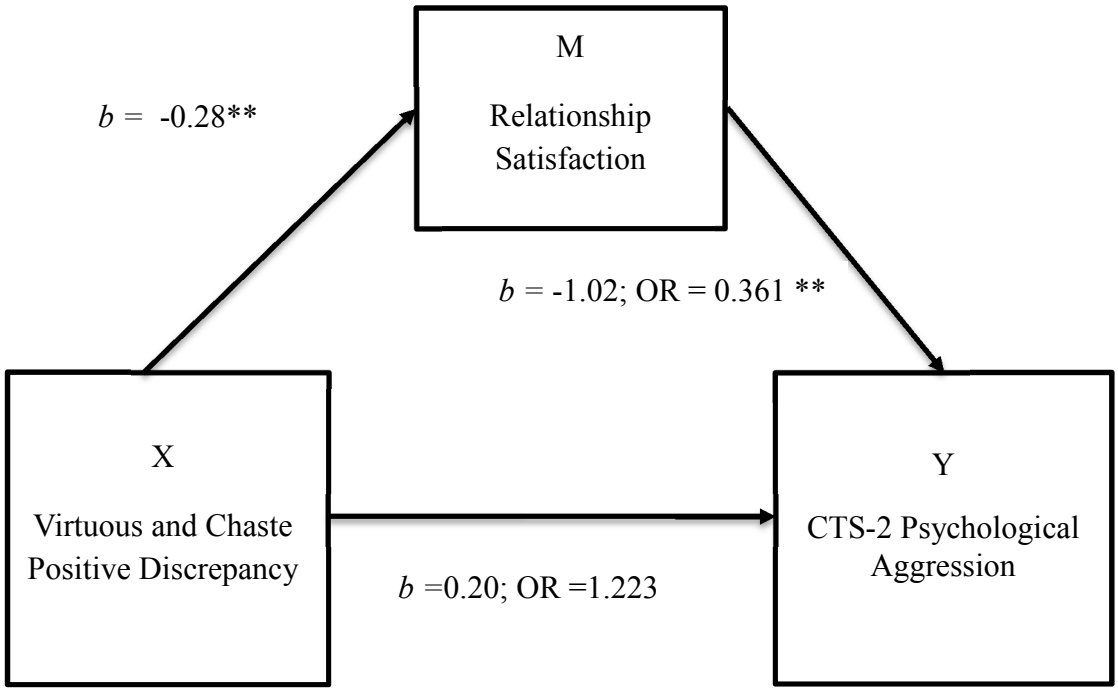

Figure 3.3 Mediation Effect of Relationship Satisfaction between Virtuous and Chaste Discrepancy and Psychological IPV.

Note: Regression coefficients for the relation between Virtuous and Chaste Positive Discrepancy and CTS-2 psychological aggression as mediated by Relationship Satisfaction. The indirect effect of Virtuous and Chaste Positive Discrepancy on CTS-2 physical aggression is $b = 0.288$, OR = 1.334, 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [0.0962, 0.6604].

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$ (based on parametric tests).

Regression coefficient from discrepancy score to Relationship Satisfaction is unstandardized.

Effects on Y (CTS-2) are reported as regression coefficients (*b*) on log-odds metric and as OR. Confidence intervals are reported on log-odds metric.

Model controls for age, relationship type, being student, and having a Latina partner.

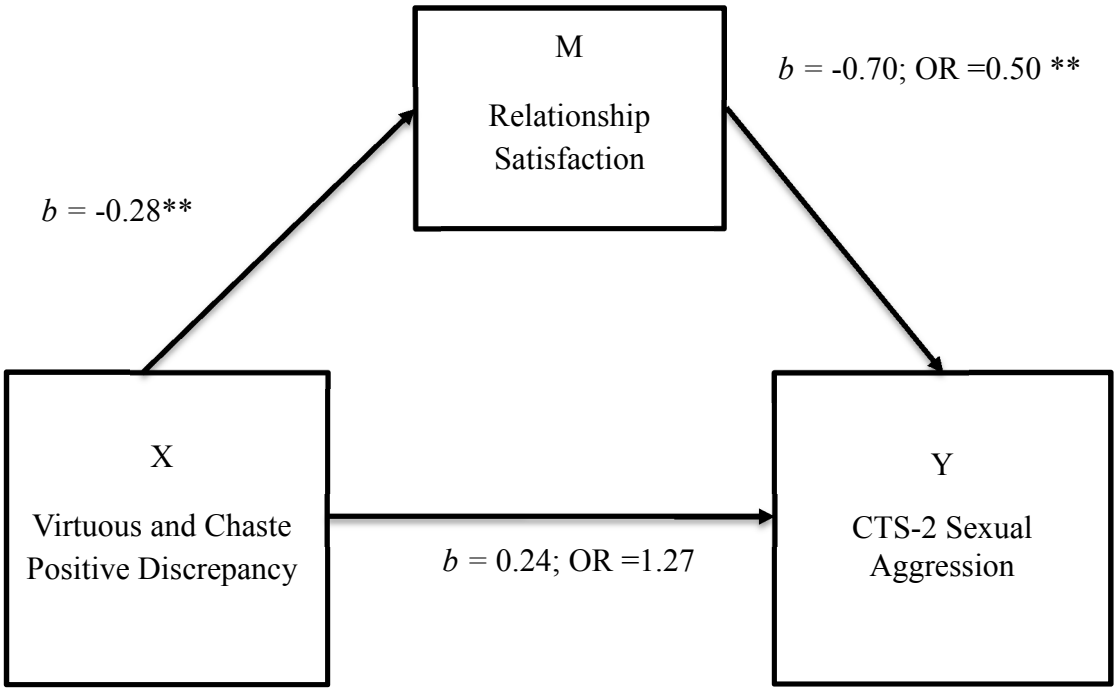

Figure 3.4 Mediation Effect of Relationship Satisfaction between Virtuous and Chaste Discrepancy and Sexual IPV.

Note: Regression coefficients for the relation between Virtuous and Chaste Positive Discrepancy and CTS-2 psychological aggression as mediated by Relationship Satisfaction. The indirect effect of Virtuous and Chaste Positive Discrepancy on CTS-2 sexual aggression is $b = 0.196$, OR = 1.217, 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [0.063, 0.399].

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$ (based on parametric tests).

Regression coefficient from discrepancy score to Relationship Satisfaction is unstandardized.

Effects on Y (CTS-2) are reported as regression coefficients (*b*) on log-odds metric and as OR. Confidence intervals are reported on log-odds metric.

Model controls for age, relationship type, being student, and having a Latina partner.

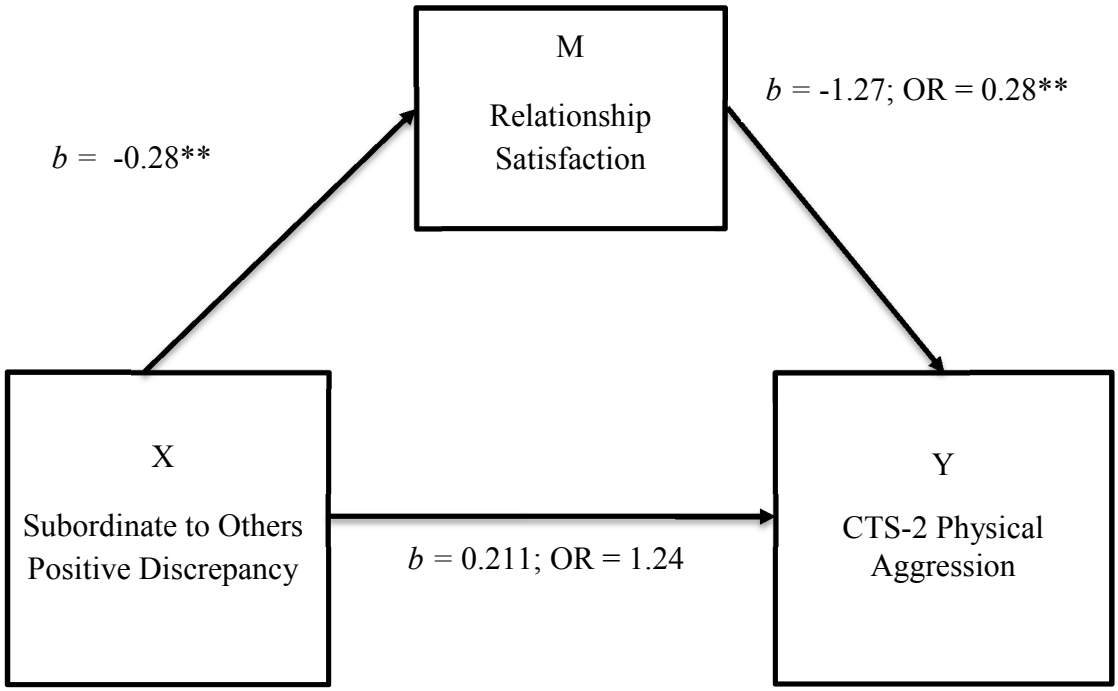

Figure 3.5 Mediation Effect of Relationship Satisfaction between Subordinate to Others Discrepancy and Physical IPV

Note: Regression coefficients for the relation between Subordinate to Others Positive Discrepancy and CTS-2 psychological aggression as mediated by Relationship Satisfaction. The indirect effect of Subordinate to Others Positive Discrepancy on CTS-2 physical aggression is $b = 0.287$, OR = 1.332, 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [0.086, 0.596].

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$ (based on parametric tests).

Regression coefficient from discrepancy score to Relationship Satisfaction is unstandardized.

Effects on Y (CTS-2) are reported as regression coefficients (*b*) on log-odds metric and as OR. Confidence intervals are reported on log-odds metric.

Model controls for age, relationship type, being student, and having a Latina partner.

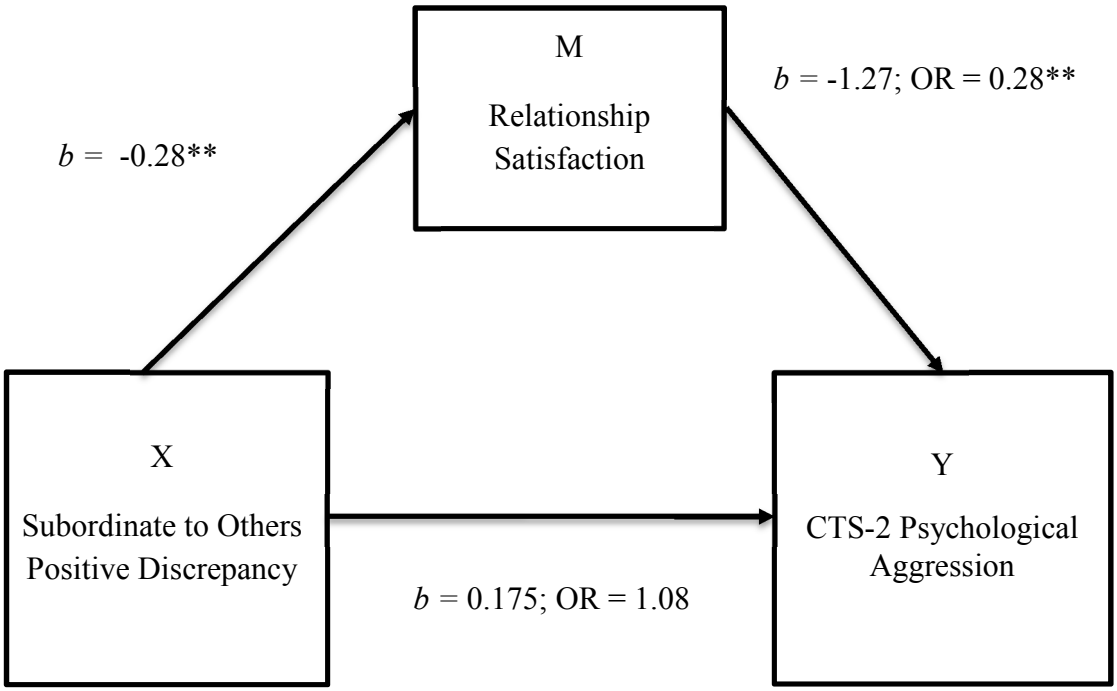

Figure 3.6 Mediation Effect of Relationship Satisfaction between Subordinate to Others Discrepancy and Psychological IPV

Note: Regression coefficients for the relation between Subordinate to Others Positive Discrepancy and CTS-2 psychological aggression as mediated by Relationship Satisfaction. The indirect effect of Subordinate to Others Positive Discrepancy on CTS-2 psychological aggression is $b = 0.353$, OR = 1.423, 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [0.087, 0.810].

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$ (based on parametric tests).

Regression coefficient from discrepancy score to Relationship Satisfaction is unstandardized.

Effects on Y (CTS-2) are reported as regression coefficients (*b*) on log-odds metric and as OR. Confidence intervals are reported on log-odds metric.

Model controls for age, relationship type, being student, and having a Latina partner.

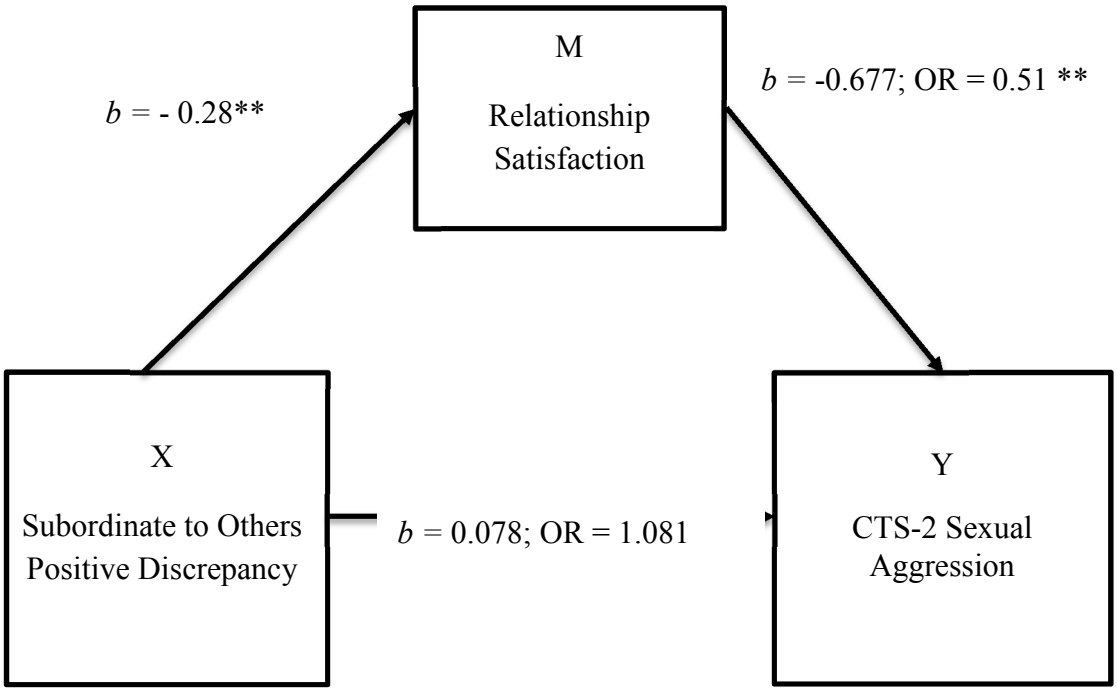

Figure 3.7 Mediation Effect of Relationship Satisfaction between Subordinate to Others Discrepancy and Sexual IPV

Note: Regression coefficients for the relation between Subordinate to Others Positive Discrepancy and CTS-2 sexual aggression as mediated by Relationship Satisfaction. The indirect effect of Subordinate to Others Positive Discrepancy on CTS-2 sexual aggression is $b = 0.196$, OR = 1.217, 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [0.063, 0.399].

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$ (based on parametric tests).

Regression coefficient from discrepancy score to Relationship Satisfaction is unstandardized.

Effects on Y (CTS-2) are reported as regression coefficients (*b*) on log-odds metric and as OR. Confidence intervals are reported on log-odds metric.

Model controls for age, relationship type, being student, and having a Latina partner.

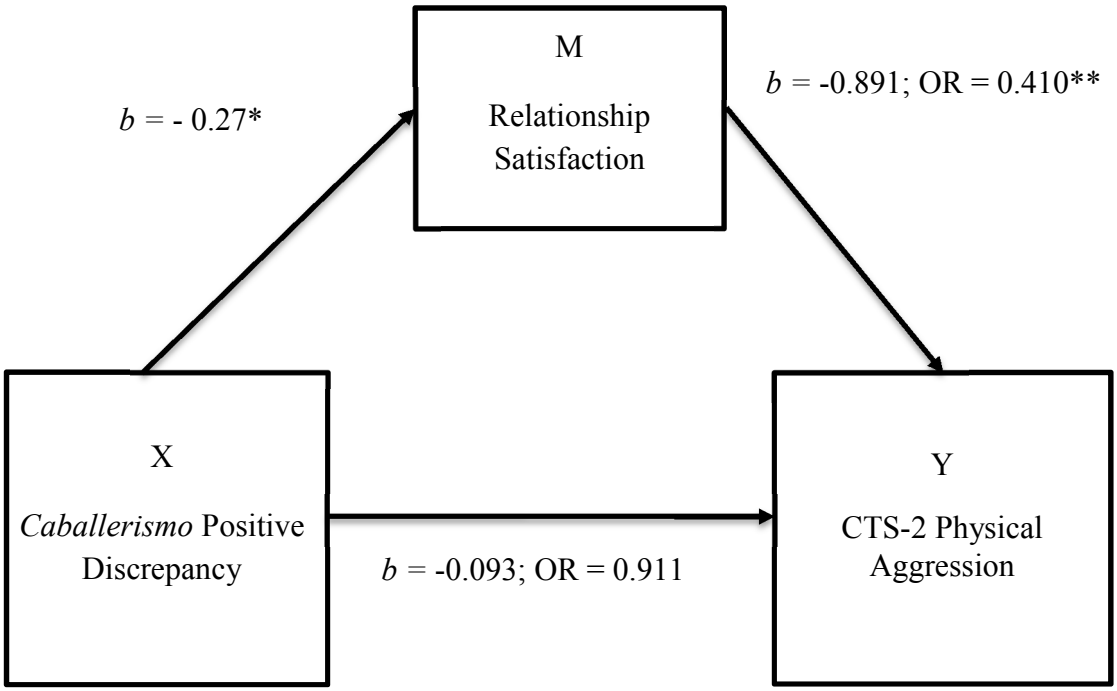

Figure 3.8 Mediation Effect of Relationship Satisfaction between Caballerismo Discrepancy and Physical IPV

Note: Regression coefficients for the relation between *Caballerismo* Positive Discrepancy and CTS-2 physical aggression as mediated by Relationship Satisfaction. The indirect effect of *Caballerismo* Positive Discrepancy on CTS-2 physical sexual aggression is $b = 0.242$, OR = 1.274, 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [0.054, 0.555].

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$ (based on parametric tests).

Regression coefficient from discrepancy score to Relationship Satisfaction is unstandardized.

Effects on Y (CTS-2) are reported as regression coefficients (*b*) on log-odds metric and as OR. Confidence intervals are reported on log-odds metric.

Model controls for age, relationship type, being student, and having a Latina partner.

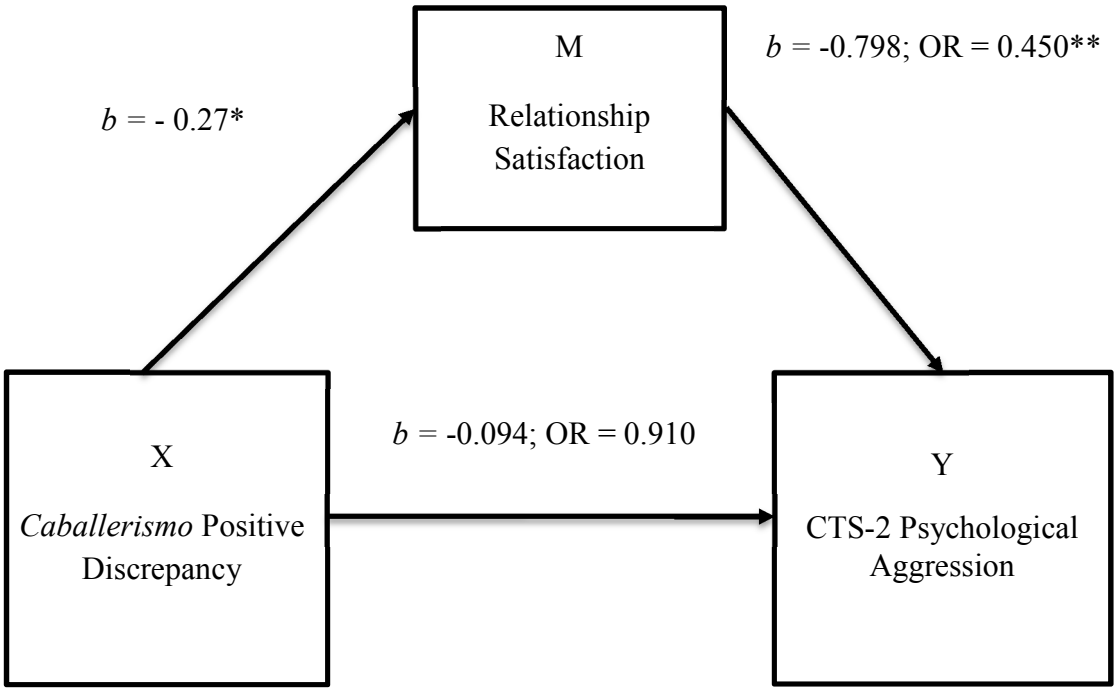

Figure 3.9 Mediation Effect of Relationship Satisfaction between Caballerismo Discrepancy and Psychological IPV

Note: Regression coefficients for the relation between *Caballerismo* Positive Discrepancy and CTS-2 psychological aggression as mediated by Relationship Satisfaction. The indirect effect of *Caballerismo* Positive Discrepancy on CTS-2 psychological sexual aggression is $b = 0.213$, OR = 1.237, 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [0.038, 0.561].

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$ (based on parametric tests).

Regression coefficient from discrepancy score to Relationship Satisfaction is unstandardized.

Effects on Y (CTS-2) are reported as regression coefficients (*b*) on log-odds metric and as OR. Confidence intervals are reported on log-odds metric.

Model controls for age, relationship type, being student, and having a Latina partner.

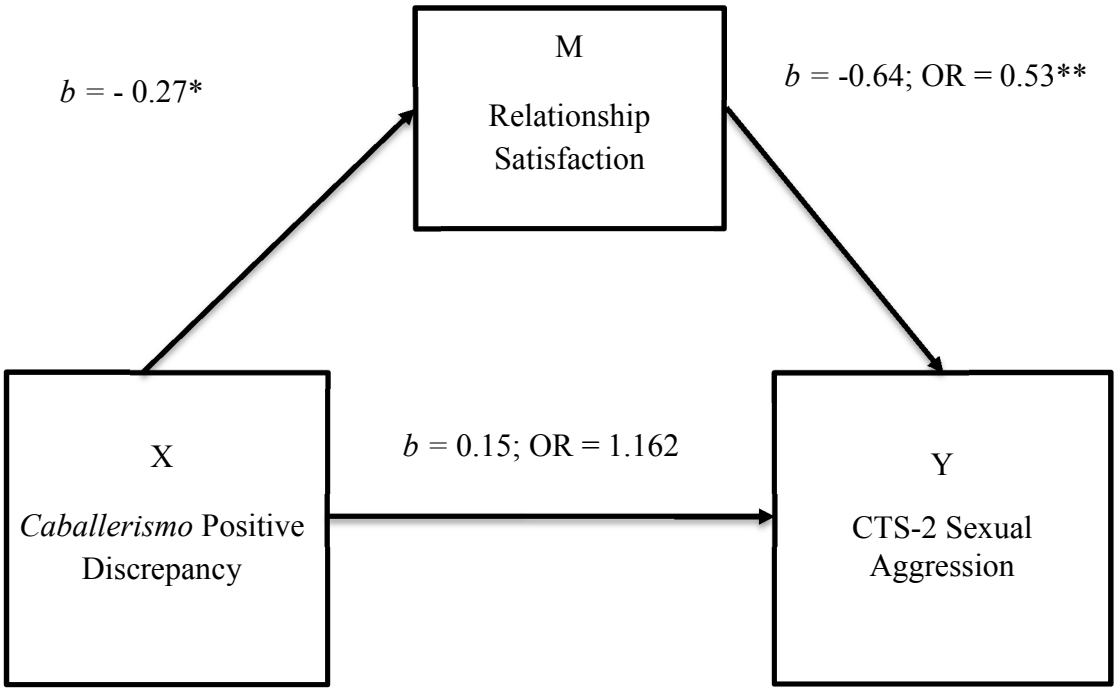

Figure 3.10 Mediation Effect of Relationship Satisfaction between Caballerismo Discrepancy and Sexual IPV

Note: Regression coefficients for the relation between *Caballerismo* Positive Discrepancy and CTS-2 sexual aggression as mediated by Relationship Satisfaction. The indirect effect of *Caballerismo* Positive Discrepancy on CTS-2 psychological sexual aggression is $b = 0.171$, OR = 1.186, 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [0.030, 0.426].

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$ (based on parametric tests).

Regression coefficient from discrepancy score to Relationship Satisfaction is unstandardized.

Effects on Y (CTS-2) are reported as regression coefficients (*b*) on log-odds metric and as OR. Confidence intervals are reported on log-odds metric.

Model controls for age, relationship type, being student, and having a Latina partner.

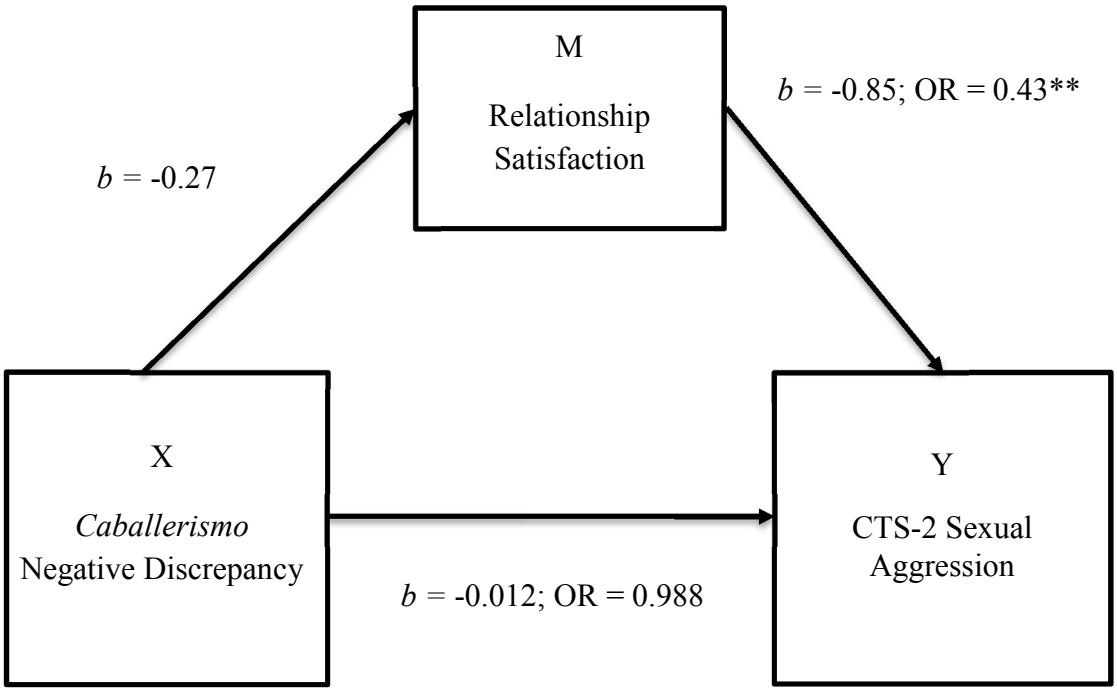

Figure 3.11 Mediation Effect of Relationship Satisfaction between Caballerismo Discrepancy and Sexual IPV

Note: Regression coefficients for the relation between *Caballerismo* Negative Discrepancy and CTS-2 sexual aggression as mediated by Relationship Satisfaction.

The direct effect of *Caballerismo* Negative Discrepancy $b = -0.27$ OR = 1.384, had a $p > 0.05$, but the 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-0.767, -0.007], therefore, this path is considered significant.

The indirect effect of *Caballerismo* Negative Discrepancy on CTS-2 psychological sexual aggression is $b = 0.325$, 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [0.004, 0.745].

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$ (based on parametric tests).

Regression coefficient from discrepancy score to Relationship Satisfaction is unstandardized.

Effects on Y (CTS-2) are reported as regression coefficients (*b*) on log-odds metric and as OR. Confidence intervals are reported on log-odds metric.

CHAPTER 4

DISCUSSION

Research articles on IPV among Latinxs often state that traditional Latinx cultural values and gender role attitudes such as *marianismo* and *machismo* are causes of IPV within this population (Sabina, 2016; Klevens, 2007; Cummings et al., 2013); however, most empirical studies have not integrated measures of those constructs. Furthermore, studies using various measures of gender role attitudes offer mixed results as to whether these attitudes function as risk or protective factors of IPV among Latinxs in the US. The current study aimed to address the stated limitations in the literature on gender role attitudes and IPV among Latinxs. Specifically, the objective of this study was to explore a culturally informed model of a mechanism of how traditional gender role attitudes are linked to increased risk of IPV perpetration by Latino men. To reach the study objective, first, I integrated a novel approach from the relationship research field to assess how gender role expectations relate to relationship satisfaction and IPV perpetration. Specifically, I explored whether men who perceive that their current partner does not measure up to their gender role expectations of an ideal female partner (i.e., ideal-perceived partner discrepancy) were more likely to report lower relationship satisfaction and more IPV. Second, I also evaluated whether men perceiving that their female partner differed in opinion from them in how a man should be (male gender role) was related to lower relationship satisfaction and more IPV. Additionally, this study used validated

measures of the Latinx gender role attitudes *marianismo, machismo,* and *caballerismo,* aiming to incorporate culturally relevant conceptualizations of gender roles.

Marianismo

Overall, results of this study provide evidence that men who perceive a discrepancy between their ideal partner and their current partner report lower relationship satisfaction, and that relationship satisfaction mediates the association between ideal-perceived partner discrepancy and IPV perpetration. Specifically, findings differed by *Marianismo* factors, indicating that men reporting that their current partner is not as Virtuous and Chaste or Subordinate to Others as they would prefer had lower relationship satisfaction, and more physical, psychological, and sexual IPV perpetration (through lower relationship satisfaction). However, results indicate that relationship satisfaction did not mediate the association between ideal-perceived partner discrepancies for the *Marianismo* subscales of Family Pillar, Spiritual Pillar, and Self-Silencing and any form of IPV.

The stated results are in line with previous research and the developers of the *Marianismo* Beliefs Scale, who proposed that *marianismo* is a multidimensional construct and that some of its facets might be positive and others might be negative (Castillo et al., 2010). Most research using the *Marianismo* Beliefs Scale has focused on Latina women and how their endorsement of different subscales leads to positive or negative wellbeing outcomes (For example, Piña-Watson et al., 2013; Sanchez, et al., 2017; Sanchez et al., 2018). However, the current study results expand upon research in this area, indicating that Latino men's views of *Marianismo* are also multidimensional, and that it is appropriate to explore how each aspect separately relates to various

outcomes. In the present study, correlational results showed that men who reported more ideal-perceived partner discrepancies for all *Marianismo* subscales, except for Self-Silencing, experienced lower relationship satisfaction. These results suggest that men's *marianismo* expectations of women are important contributors to their satisfaction with their relationships with female partners. However, only models for Virtuous and Chaste and Subordinate to Others showed that lower relationship satisfaction accounted for the connection between ideal-perceived partner discrepancy in those subscales and more IPV perpetration. The Virtuous and Chaste scale captures expectations of women before and during their romantic relationship, including aspects of being a virgin and waiting to have children until marriage, being pure, embracing religious values, and being faithful. Subordinate to Others captures expectations that women should obey the men in their lives, mostly their male partner, without questioning them. Thus, Virtuous and Chaste and Subordinate to Others focus on the role of women within the couple and on being submissive to men and their male partner. The results of this study suggest that if men believe their female partners are violating these ideals, IPV is more likely, perhaps as a way to force women into a more subordinate position within the relationship.

In contrast, the other subscales, Family pillar, Spiritual Pillar, and Self-Silencing focus on the role of women within the family, as well as others in their community. Family Pillar and Spiritual Pillar emphasize the role of women within the entire family and as mothers. Self-Silencing focuses on women not expressing their needs (e.g., such as sexual needs) to their partners and others in their lives. Thus, the results indicate that men seem dissatisfied with their relationship when they perceive that their partners do not meet their ideal expectations in general. However, only when female partners do not

match men's expectations in aspects related to their role within the couple (e.g., virginal and pure) and are not as submissive to them, their dissatisfaction with the relationship indirectly increases their reported perpetration of IPV. Therefore, the results highlight the importance of evaluating *Marianismo* subscales separately as they capture various dimensions of this Latinx gender role attitude.

Furthermore, the results indicating that ideal-perceived partner discrepancies for Virtuous and Chaste and Subordinate to Others are linked to more IPV perpetration through lower relationship satisfaction are consistent with limited research with Latinxs. Falconier (2013) found that men's more traditional gender role attitudes, and the extent to which those attitudes differed from their female partners' attitudes, increased the risk of men's psychological aggression and relationship dissatisfaction. Additionally, the results are also in line with qualitative research where immigrant Latinxs report that when women gain employment outside the home, men's use of violence increases as a way to keep control (Klevens et al., 2007). The study results and the processes described in qualitative research can be framed through Gender Role Conflict Theory, which posits that men's violence towards their partners may result from men feeling that they are not meeting their standards of masculinity, or they perceive that their female partners do not meet their gender role (Copenhaver et al., 2000; Baugher & Gazmararian, 2015). Participants in this study who perceived that their partner is not meeting their expectations regarding how they should be in the relationship might experience masculine gender role conflict, in turn experiencing lower relationship satisfaction and becoming aggressive. The results are also consistent with Feminist Theory that postulates that violence against women is a form to ascertain male dominance to regain control

when men experience threats to their perceived power and control. Thus, the current results are in line with several theories that postulate that when men perceive that their female partners do not meet their rigid gender role expectations, they might experience threats to their masculinity and power and might use violence to ascertain control and regain power.

Ideal-Perceived Partner Discrepancy Measurement

Furthermore, most research on the role of gender role attitudes and IPV with Latinx and other populations has focused on measuring this construct at the individual level (i.e., individual endorsement); however, looking at individual-level variables misses how dynamics within the couple influence conflict and violence. The present study is innovative because it evaluates how gender role attitudes are linked to IPV perpetration by measuring the discrepancy between what participants prefer in their ideal partner and the extent to which their current partner has those characteristics. This approach was developed by scholars who study relationship dynamics, and previous research has focused on discrepancies related to personality characteristics (e.g., Warmth/Trustworthiness, Vitality/Attractiveness, and Status/Resources) and relationship characteristics (Intimacy/Loyalty and Passion) (Fletcher, Simpson, and Thomas, 2000). I identified only one article that integrated this method to study discrepancies in expectations of gender roles for partners (Gonzalez-Mendez et al. (2019) measured "affectionate wife"), and one article that used this method to assess perceived-partner discrepancies in general and how it linked to IPV perpetration and victimization (Jaspaert and Vervaeke, 2014). Using the ideal-perceived partner discrepancy approach to study gender role attitudes might better capture quantitatively the process discussed in

qualitative studies where women who no longer meet expectations of their male partners experience more IPV victimization. Thus, the current study bridges the evidence in quantitative studies with existing knowledge from qualitative research.

Furthermore, the current study could also inform research using the perceived-current discrepancy approach on how to conceptualize and compute the discrepancy scores. Previous research using the ideal-perceived partner discrepancy paradigm have utilized various methods for calculating the discrepancy (For example: Fletcher et al., 2000; Campbell et al., 2001). Some studies have focused on calculating the mean difference between ideal and current scores without differentiating between "positive" (when current partner falls short from ideal) from "negative" (when current partner exceeds the ideal) discrepancies due to finding very few participants who report that their partners exceed their ideal (Stephanou, 2012). Other studies have used the absolute value of the discrepancy by transforming "negative" discrepancies into positive values (Ruvolo and Veroff, 1997), and authors argue that theoretically, a current partner who falls short or exceeds the ideal on a characteristic would function similarly because the partner is not meeting the person's expectation. However, other researchers have argued that "positive" and "negative" discrepancies might represent separate experiences, and thus, should be evaluated separately. For example, Frost & Forrester (2013) evaluated closeness with the partner, and they argued that those "positive" discrepancies would capture experiences of feeling "not close enough," while "negative" discrepancies would capture that the partner was "too close." Studies separating "positive" and "negative" discrepancies found that they seemed to function as different constructs and were associated with outcome variables differently (Buyukcan-Tetik et al., 2017; Frost & Forrester, 2013).

The current study is unprecedented because very few studies have used the ideal-perceived partner discrepancy integrating expectations of gender roles. Thus, initially, I did not expect to find that many participants would say that their partners exceeded their ideal expectations for *Marianismo*, indicating that these men wished that their partners embodied *less Marianismo.* However, results showed those who reported that their female partners exceeded their expectations ranged from 18.2% to 53.1% for the different subscales. Therefore, analyses were conducted separately for "positive" and "negative" discrepancies. Theoretically, it did not seem that stating that a partner exceeded a subscale of *Marianismo* would be perceived the same as the partner falling short of meeting the participants' expectations. For example, stating that a female partner exceeds at being the Family Pillar (e.g., taking care of children, keeping family connected) might be perceived as something desirable, while stating that the partner falls short of those characteristics could be undesirable.

The study results support the idea that negative and positive discrepancies for gender role expectations might function differently. Most of the positive ideal-current partner discrepancy scores were related to lower relationship satisfaction, which was not the case with negative ideal-current partner discrepancies, which were not related to relationship satisfaction. Furthermore, negative discrepancies for Spiritual Pillar was related to more physical aggression, and negative discrepancy for Subordinate to Others was related to more sexual aggression; however, mediation models found that relationship satisfaction did not mediate those associations. On the other hand, it seems that when men perceive that their partners are not as Virtuous and Chaste and Subordinate to Others as they would want them to be, they are more likely to report

perpetrating violence towards them due to feeling dissatisfied with the relationship. Thus, current findings suggest that there might be a different mechanism, which is not through lower relationship satisfaction, accounting for violence when women are perceived to be too Subordinate to Others and too religious (Spiritual Pillar). Exploring potential mechanisms to account for these association would be an important theoretical and empirical question to pursue in future research.

Machismo

The second part of the current study focused on participants' perceptions of their female partner's expectations of male gender roles, compared to participants' own views. I predicted that these discrepancies would be linked to their relationship satisfaction and IPV perpetration. Two measures of Latinx gender role attitudes were used, *Machismo* and *Caballerismo.* It was hypothesized that men who report high discrepancies between their endorsement of *Machismo* and their perceptions of their female partner's endorsement of *Machismo* (gender role discrepancy) would be more likely to report lower relationship satisfaction and IPV perpetration. Additionally, lower relationship satisfaction would account for the connection (mediation) between perceived *Machismo* endorsement discrepancy and IPV perpetration. The results of the current study did not support this hypothesis. Results indicated that the perceived discrepancy in the endorsement of *Machismo* was not associated with relationship satisfaction or IPV perpetration, and lower relationship satisfaction did not account for a connection between perceived endorsement discrepancy and IPV perpetration. However, correlations showed that participants' endorsement of *Machismo* was linked to lower relationship satisfaction and associated with more psychological and sexual IPV perpetration.

The study results regarding *Machismo* suggest that men's endorsement of *Machismo* might be a risk factor for IPV perpetration and experiencing lower relationship satisfaction regardless of whether their partner agrees or disagrees with this gender role. The results are consistent with meta-analyses with non-Latinxs samples showing that measures of hostile masculinity and views that men should dominate women, which are consistent with *Machismo,* are strongly linked to IPV perpetration and sexual violence (Sugarman and Frankel, 1996; Murnen et al., 2002). Additionally, these results are consistent with a study with Latinx college students where men and women who endorsed more *Machismo* reported more tolerance of dating violence (Terrazas-Carrillo and Sabina, 2019). Thus, endorsing *Machismo* might be a risk factor for IPV perpetration among Latino men.

Caballerismo

An important addition of the current study to the field of IPV among Latinxs was that it explored men's endorsement of *Caballerismo*. *Caballerismo* is discussed in the literature of Latinxs gender role attitudes, but it has been studied very little in the context of IPV. Given the lack of existing research to inform potential hypotheses, the analyses with this construct were exploratory. The current study aimed to answer the questions: how does perceiving a discrepancy in own endorsement and female partner's endorsement of *Caballerismo* relate to relationship satisfaction and IPV perpetration? Would relationship satisfaction account (mediate) for the association between perceived discrepancy in *Caballerismo* endorsement and IPV perpetration? Results showed that when men reported a positive discrepancy in the endorsement of *Caballerismo*, meaning they perceived their partners endorsed *Caballerismo* less than they did, a higher

discrepancy was related to more physical, psychological, and sexual IPV through lower relationship satisfaction. Additionally, when men reported a negative discrepancy in the endorsement of *Caballerismo*, meaning that they perceived their partners to endorse *Caballerismo* more than they did, a higher negative discrepancy was linked to more sexual IPV perpetration through lower relationship satisfaction.

Caballerismo has been conceptualized as a positive gender role for Latino men compared to the harmful alternative of *machismo*. *Caballerismo* is theorized as men embracing a prosocial attitude towards their family and community, where men take care of others in their lives and show affection (Arciniegas et al., 2008). Research with Latino men indicates that endorsing *Caballerismo* is linked to better mental health and wellbeing outcomes for them (Ojeda & Piña-Watson, 2014; Herrera et al., 2013). Consistent with the protective effect of *Caballerismo* in these studies, in the present study participants' own endorsement of *Caballerismo* was linked to higher relationship satisfaction and associated with less IPV perpetration of all types.

However, although this study found that a man who endorses higher *Caballerismo* beliefs tends to have better relationship outcomes, the results also show that when men perceive that their female partners do not agree with *Caballerismo* as much as them, this discrepancy might be related to adverse relationship outcomes. Results show that when men perceive that their partners disagree with them in how much they endorse *Caballerismo,* the discrepancy is associated with more IPV perpetration through lower relationship satisfaction. Although these results might seem contradictory, it could reflect that *Caballerismo* is linked to less aggression when women also agree with their partners and meet their prescribed roles and expectations.

Theoretically, *Caballerismo* is a construct similar to benevolent sexism, which posits that men and women complement each other, women are pure and delicate, and men need to protect women (Glick & Fiske, 1997). Despite the term "benevolent", this type of sexism has a dark side. Men's and women's benevolent sexism predicts more victim-blaming in scenarios where a husband is a rapist but is described as benevolent sexist (Duran, et al., 2010), when reading about acquaintance rape (Abrams et al., 2003), and when a victim of acquaintance rape was described as married and being unfaithful compared to a victim whose marital status was unknown (Viki & Abrams, 2000). Additionally, a study with Spanish women showed that women's benevolent sexism predicted whether a hypothetical husband would feel threatened by a wife's job promotion and would be more likely to be violent towards her (Exposito et al., 2010). Thus, when women violate their expected roles (e.g., married women being unfaithful or receiving a promotion), benevolent sexism is linked to more acceptance of violence towards them. The only study evaluating benevolent sexism and IPV among Latinxs (a sample of Latinx and African American college students) found that benevolent sexism was linked to less IPV male perpetration and female victimization (Allen et al., 2009). Thus, future research through experimental studies (e.g., hypothetical scenarios) could explore whether *Caballerismo* functions similarly to benevolent sexism in being protective of IPV perpetration and victimization when women comply with it, but whether it is linked to more acceptance of violence toward women who violate gender role prescriptions, which could explain the apparently contradictory results of the current study regarding *Caballerismo* and IPV perpetration.

Another critical aspect of the current study is that participants agreed with the prescriptions of the male gender role of *Caballerismo* a lot more than they did with *Machismo.* This result is noteworthy because, in the IPV literature, articles often refer to *machismo* as the leading male gender role within Latinx culture. Within the current sample, men view their role as more aligned with a prosocial view of masculinity rather than the hostile and very negative prescriptions of *machismo.* Thus, showing that the description of Latino men as "machos" who are hypermasculine is not necessarily accurate and might reinforce damaging stereotypes. Interestingly, endorsement of *Caballerismo* was not related to endorsement of *Machismo* and was not associated with describing an ideal partner as having to be Subordinate to Others or Self-Silencing. However, it was related to expecting the ideal partner to be Virtuous and Chaste, the Family Pillar, and Spiritual Pillar of the family. Thus, it seems that *Caballerismo* indeed captures a separate form of gender role for men that aligns with some of the more positive aspects of *Marianismo.* Future research on Latinx populations would benefit from integrating measures of *Caballerismo,* as this seems to be a more endorsed form of masculinity by Latino men.

Sample Characteristics

A unique innovative aspect of the present study is the use of TurkPrime panels to reach participants. There is limited research on IPV and Latinxs using online research platforms such as TurkPrime. Given the novelty of this method, the current sample might differ from those in other studies. For example, the rates of IPV reported in the current study seemed elevated compared to previous research. For the subscale of CTS-2 physical aggression, 30.9% endorsed at least one item for the previous year; 67.0% for

CTS-2 psychological aggression, and 44.1% CTS-2 sexual aggression. However, it is difficult to establish whether these high rates stem from the difference in the sampling method or the scales used to measure IPV. The current study utilized The Revised Conflict Tactics Scales (CTS-2) (Straus et al., 1996), but most previous research on IPV among Latinxs has used the previous version of this scale, The Conflict Tactics Scales (CTS-R) (Straus, 1990). I was able to find two studies that used CTS-2 to measure IPV male perpetration among Latino men; a summary of the characteristics of the study is presented in Table 4.1. The IPV rates in the present study are consistent with the two previous studies in terms of physical aggression, with about 30% past-year perpetration. Psychological aggression was lower in the current study with 67.0% compared to Sugihara and Warner's (2002) 80%. Lastly, sexual aggression was higher in this study, with 44.1% compared to the two other studies that reported 21% and 28.3% (See Table 4.1). Discrepancies in reporting of sexual aggression CST-2 might be due to the removal of items in the other studies leading to underestimation of these behaviors. Alternatively, in the current study, a few participants indicated that their responses referred to consensual acts (e.g., "The condom question is tricky, since we are actively trying to have a baby"), which might indicate that the current study overestimates the rates of sexual violence. Lastly, participants using TurkPrime, an online platform, might feel more anonymous compared to participants using a pencil and paper survey, and thus feel more comfortable reporting items related to sexual violence. Future research on topics that are affected by social desirability, such as interpersonal violence, could explore whether online platforms are perceived as more anonymous than other methods and allow for better estimates of violence perpetration.

Implications for Violence Prevention

The outcomes of the current study can inform the development and tailoring of interventions aimed to prevent or treat IPV among Latinxs. Ethnic minority men, including Latino men, are overrepresented in court-mandated groups for IPV perpetrators (Field & Caetano, 2005; Barner & Carney, 2011); however, there has been limited evaluation and comparison between conventional treatments (i.e., Cognitive Behavioral Therapies (CBT) or the Duluth model) and culturally adapted programs (Murphy and Ting, 2010). In a review of the efficacy of interventions for perpetrators of IPV, Murphy and Ting (2010) identified only one study comparing a culturally adapted intervention to conventional treatment, and the study focused on African American participants (Gondolf, 2007). Gondolf (2007) did not find that the culturally adapted group yielded superior results to non-adapted groups; there were similar outcomes for African American participants in a culturally adapted group with all African American participants, compared to both, a conventional CBT treatment with an all African American group and a CBT racially-mixed group. Unfortunately, I was not able to identify outcome studies exploring culturally adapted IPV treatments for Latinx populations. However, two preliminary studies of culturally adapted interventions for Spanish-speaking Latino immigrant men explored participants' satisfaction and opinions of the intervention content that was relevant or needed to be added to the curricula. In both studies, Latino men reported that the cultural tailoring reflected in topics discussed (e.g., discussion of *machismo,* familism, immigration, and discrimination experiences) and delivery approach (facilitators were all Spanish speaking Latinx) increased their willingness to change and to participate in the groups (Parra-Cardona et al., 2013;

Welland & Ribner, 2010). These studies suggest that culturally adapted groups are promising from the perspective of participants. Future steps should include outcome studies to evaluate whether these culturally adapted groups lead to improved outcomes for Latinx participants compared to non-adapted conventional treatments. Thus, intervention researchers are starting to develop and evaluate culturally adapted treatments for Latinx populations, but the lack of existing outcome studies and the few preliminary studies indicate that there is a great need to address culturally adapted treatment for Latino men.

The current results can assist and complement the researchers' efforts to develop culturally adapted interventions by identifying mechanisms to target in prevention and treatment of IPV perpetration among Latinx communities. Specifically, the results indicate that interventions would benefit from targeting men's attitudes, such as *Machismo,* when this belief is endorsed. Additionally, treatment curricula could discuss changes in roles within the couple that might bring frustration and dissatisfaction to men, and how to address this dissatisfaction appropriately. Lastly, interventions could address men's expectations of their partners as being submissive and meeting narrow views of being "pure and virginal," as well as discussing the potential that their partners might not value *Caballerismo* as much as them, and teach men how to still engage in prosocial approaches with their partners and families. We (the author and the dissertation committee) would like to emphasize that we do not recommend that interventions should teach women to be more submissive or to align with more traditional views of women's gender roles as means to decrease their victimization in their relationships. The emphasis

of interventions and treatment should be to change attitudes and behaviors of men who perpetrate IPV.

Limitations

This study has several limitations worth discussing. First, the cross-sectional design of the study prevents us from establishing causation between the different constructs. Thus, future research could expand by using longitudinal approaches. Experimental paradigms can also be used to explore how *Caballerismo* is linked to acceptance of violence when women do not comply to narrow gender roles.

Second, the current sample is not representative of the Latinx population in the US, and results might not be generalizable to the entire Latinx population. The sampling procedures via TurkPrime provide a convenience sample; these findings need to be replicated using a larger probability-based sample. Additionally, the current study collected data only from English speaking Latinx due to a lack of validation of some measures in Spanish. Therefore, the sample of the current study is more acculturated than monolingual Spanish speaking Latinxs.

Lastly, the Latinx population in the US is heterogeneous, with people coming from different countries, having various cultures, and immigration histories. Research on IPV shows that different Latinx subgroups report different rates of IPV (Kantor, 1997). A limitation of the current study is that we did not conduct analyses by Latinx subgroups due to power considerations for our analyses. Furthermore, due to issues of feasibility, we were unable to assess other vital constructs that have been found to influence the risk of IPV among Latinx populations and could be related to Latinx gender role attitudes. For example, the current study does not include measures of acculturative stress or religiosity

that could be linked to views of gender roles. Thus, future research on Latinxs and IPV might benefit from integrating other cultural and acculturation measures, as well as exploring various subgroups of Latinxs.

Strengths

Previous research on the association between gender role attitudes and IPV risk among Latinxs provides a mixed and at times contradictory pattern of results and has failed to include measures of Latinx gender role attitudes (Klevens, 2007; Sabina, 2016). This study extended this area of research by utilizing validated measures of Latinx gender role attitudes, ensuring a more culturally relevant approach to assess these constructs.

Second, this study integrated an approach from the relationship research literature to evaluate gender role expectations in a more sophisticated manner than just asking participants for their level of endorsement only. Specifically, I integrated the ideal-perceived partner discrepancy framework based on the theory that when a partner perceives a discrepancy between their ideal partner and their current partner, they experience lower relationship satisfaction and adverse relationship outcomes (Fletcher et al., 1999). The current study is one of few that has used this paradigm to explore how men's perceived discrepancies in gender role expectations for their female partner is linked to relationship satisfaction and IPV perpetration.

Lastly, most previous research on gender role attitudes and IPV among Latinxs has focused on studying whether these attitudes relate to each other; however, the current study explored mechanisms of <u>how</u> dissatisfaction with the relationship mediates the association between gender role discrepancy and IPV perpetration. Thus, this study

provides a more sophisticated understanding of how gender role expectations might escalate into violence through aspects of the relationship dynamics.

Conclusion & Reflection

This study highlights the need to move away from a deficit view of Latinx culture and statements that all Latinx traditional gender role attitudes are harmful and leading to more IPV; it is time to recognize the nuance and multidimensional aspects of Latinx cultural values and explore how they relate to IPV and relationship dynamics. Additionally, besides integrating culturally relevant conceptualizations of gender role attitudes, it is also time to move from asking whether these attitudes are risk or protective towards IPV to understand better *when, why,* and *how*. The objective of this study was to further our understanding of violence in intimate relationships among Latinxs so that it can be prevented and treated. This study suggests that when working with Latino men who have perpetrated IPV, it would be important to explore and address whether these men have rigid gender role views, particularly expecting their partners to be submissive. Changes in gender role attitudes toward more egalitarian views of gender by men would probably increase their relationship satisfaction and indirectly decrease IPV perpetration. Additionally, given that lower relationship satisfaction seems to play an essential role in IPV perpetration, teaching alternative and healthy coping skills to address this dissatisfaction might be helpful at preventing IPV.

Table 4.1. *Comparison of studies with Latinx samples using CTS-2*

Reference	Sample	Survey method	% Physical Aggression	% Psychological Aggression	% Sexual Aggression
Present Study	TurkPrime. Adult Latino men in a relationship	Online anonymous survey through TurkPrime	30.9%	67.0%	44.1%
Sugihara and Warner (2002)	Mexican American undergraduate and graduate students taking sociology classes	Pencil and paper at school	35%	80% (1 item removed)	21% (3 items removed)
Raj et al., (2006)	Predominantly Latinx sample (74.9%) of men attending an urban community health center in Boston	Pencil and paper at clinic	27.6%	N/A	28.3%

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APPENDIX A

PROTECTION OF HUMAN SUBJECTS & INFORMED CONSENT

Key information about this research study

Thank you for your interest in participating in this study. This study is being conducted by Melek Yildiz Spinel. I am a graduate student in the Department of Psychology at the University of South Carolina, and this research is for my dissertation. The goal of this study is to explore: 1) cultural and personal factors that impact relationship satisfaction, and 2) understand factors that impact how individuals deal with conflict in relationships. Your participation is completely voluntary. If you choose to participate, you will be asked to complete a 20-minute survey.

The full survey takes approximately 20 minutes to complete, and *you will receive compensation in the amount that you have agreed to with the platform through which you entered this survey.* Please complete each question as thoroughly and honestly as possible. There are no right or wrong answers. This survey includes questions about your attitudes and behaviors in relationships. It also includes questions you may find upsetting such as questions about your experiences with violence. Please review the important information below so that you can make an informed decision about whether to participate.

Confidentiality

We take your confidentiality seriously. The data collected from this study are considered anonymous because your responses cannot be linked to personally identifiable

information. I will not be able to pair your ID with your name or other identifiable information. Additionally, the survey questions will not ask for identifiable information such as your name.

Payment

Upon study completion, *you will receive compensation in the amount that you have agreed to with the platform through which you entered this survey.*

Voluntary Participation

You are not at all obligated to participate in this study. You may withdraw from the study at any point but will not receive compensation unless you complete the whole study.

Risks and Benefits

A benefit of participating is that you will be paid to complete the surveys. A potential risk is that some individuals may find the questions in the survey upsetting. In case you do feel upset by these questions, at the end of the study you will be provided with a list of resources including information about people that may be able to help you with these feelings. Additionally, you are free to withdraw from the study at any time. Another risk is a possible data breach. However, we will take great measures to protect your responses, and they will never be linked with information that could be used to identify you.

Contact Information

If you have questions or concerns about this study, you can contact Melek Yildiz Spinel at meleky@email.sc.edu. You can also contact Suzanne Swan (a Psychology professor overseeing the research) at swansc@mailbox.sc.edu or 803-777-4200. If you

have questions about your rights as a research participant, you can also contact the University of South Carolina's Office of Research Compliance at 803-777-7095.

APPENDIX B

RESOURCE LIST

This list of resources was compiled for individuals who are in violent situations, have mental health needs, or are in crisis. The resources below are available to you for free of charge. Note that the descriptions of the resources below are taken from each organization's website and is subject to change. If you are in immediate danger, call 911 or go to the nearest hospital emergency department.

National Domestic Violence Hotline

http://www.thehotline.org/

1-800 -799-SAFE or 1-800-799-7233 (English) or 1-800-799-3224 (Spanish)

If someone needs to talk about being hurt by or are afraid of a dating partner. Our advocates are available 24/7 at 1-800-799-SAFE (7233) in more than 200 languages. All calls are free and confidential. Offer phone call and chat services.

SAMHSA's National Helpline

https://www.samhsa.gov/find-help/national-helpline

1-800-662-HELP (4357) or 1-800-487-4889

Also known as the Treatment Referral Routing Service, this is a confidential, free, 24-hour-a-day, 365-day-a-year, information service, in English and Spanish, for individuals and family members facing mental and/or substance use disorders. This service provides referrals to local treatment facilities, support groups, and community-based organizations.

National Suicide Prevention Lifeline

https://suicidepreventionlifeline.org

https://suicidepreventionlifeline.org/help-yourself/en-espanol/ (Spanish)

1-800-273-8255 (English) or 1-888-628-9454 (Spanish).

We can all help prevent suicide. The Lifeline provides 24/7, free and confidential support for people in distress, prevention and crisis resources for you or your loved ones, and best practices for professionals

IMAlive . Crisis Network

www.imalive.org

IMAlive is a live online network that uses instant messaging to respond to people in crisis. It is staffed by volunteers who are trained and certified in crisis intervention. People need a safe place to go during moments of crisis and intense emotional pain.

IAMAlive National Hotline

www.hopeline.com/hotline

1-800-422-HOPE (4673)

If you (or someone you know) are depressed and thinking about suicide, please call to talk to a caring crisis hotline volunteer. Your call is free and confidential.

National Sexual Assault Hotline

www.online.rainn.org

1-800-656-HOPE (4673)

Anyone affected by sexual assault, whether it happened to you or someone you care about, can find support from the National Sexual Assault Hotline. Call to be connected

with someone over the phone who can help. You can also get help online via live chat (https://hotline.rainn.org/online)

Crisis Text Line

Text NAMI to 741-741

Connect with a trained crisis counselor to receive free, 24/7 crisis support via text message.

NAMI HelpLine-National Alliance for Mental Illness

https://www.nami.org/Find-Support/NAMI-HelpLine

1-800-950-NAMI (6264)

The NAMI HelpLine can be reached Monday through Friday, 10 am–6 pm, ET. HelpLine staff and volunteers are prepared to answer your questions about mental health issues including symptoms of mental health conditions, treatment options, and local support groups and services.

APPENDIX C

STUDY MEASURES

Note: Participants will not see text bolded and in italics such as measure names displayed here (e.g., Demographic Questionnaire).

Demographic Questionnaire

1. What is your race? *[can select more than one]*

1. White.

2. Black or African American.

3. American Indian or Alaska Native.

4. Asian.

5. Other.

2. Do you consider yourself to be a Hispanic, Latino, or Latinx man?

1. Yes
2. No [screen out]

3. How old are you?

a. 17 or younger [screen out]

b. If 18 or older. Fill in the blank.

4. Please enter your age bellow. [Fill in blank]

5. Are you in a relationship with a woman?

1. Yes
2. No [screen out]

6. Which of the following best describes your relationship status?

   a. Single [screen out]

   b. Casual dating, not in a committed relationship [screen out]

   c. Committed relationship with my partner

   d. Living with my partner

   e. Married

   f. None of the above [screen out]

7. Were you born in the US?

   c. Yes

   d. No

[IF yes to question 7]

7.1 In the previous question you reported that you were born in the US. Which of the following options describe your family of origin?

a. At least one of your parents was born OUTSIDE the US.

b. At least one of your grand-parents was OUTSIDE the US.

c. ALL my parents and grandparents were born IN the US.

[IF No to question 7]

7.2. In the previous question you reported that you were born outside the US. How many years have you lived in the US?

[Fill in the blank]

8. In general, what language(s) do you read and speak?

    1. Only English
    2. English better than Spanish
    3. Both equally
    4. Spanish better than English
    5. Only Spanish
    6.

9. Was <u>your partner</u> born in the US?

    1. Yes

    2. No

[IF yes to question 9]

9.1 In general, what language(s) does <u>your partner</u> read and speak?

    a. Only English
    b. English better than Spanish
    c. Both equally
    d. Spanish better than English
    e. Only Spanish

[IF yes to question 9]

9.2 Is your partner Hispanic, Latina, or Latinx?

    1. Yes
    2. No

[IF yes to question 9]

9.3. In the previous question you reported that <u>your partner</u> was born in the US.

Which of the following options describe her family of origin?

a. At least one of her parents was born OUTSIDE the US.

b. At least one of her grand-parents was born OUTSIDE the US.

c. All her parents and grandparents were born IN the US.

[IF No to question 9]

9.4. In the previous question you reported that <u>your partner</u> was born outside the US.

How many years has she lived in the US?

[Fill in the blank]

10. Identify the category for your total 2018 pretax individual income

a. $4,000 or less

b. $4,001 to $6,000

c. $6,001 to $8,000

d. $8,001 to $10,000

e. $10,001 to $15,000

f. $15,001 to $20,000

g. $20,001 to $30,000

h. $30,001 to $40,000

i. $40,001 to $60,000

j. $60,001 to 80,000

k. $80,001 to $100,000

l. more than $100,000.

11. Identify the category for your total 2018 pretax household income:

a. $4,000 or less

b. $4,001 to $6,000

c. $6,001 to $8,000

d. $8,001 to $10,000

e. $10,001 to $15,000

f. $15,001 to $20,000

g. $20,001 to $30,000

h. $30,001 to $40,000

i. $40,001 to $60,000

j. $60,001 to 80,000

k. $80,001 to $100,000

l. more than $100,000.

12. How many individuals live in your household? [Fill in the blank]

1. Yes

2. No

13. What type of degree are your pursuing?

a. GED or high school

b. Four-year college degree

c. Community college degree

d. Vocational or technical degree

e. Post-college degree/ Graduate school

f. Other. Fill in the blank:

13. Which of the categories below represent your current employment status? Choose all that apply.

a. Unemployed

b. Retired

c. Disabled

d. In school

e. Volunteer

f. In job training

g. Employed part-time

h. Employed full-time

i. Other. Fill in the blank

14. Are you currently a student? [Fill in the blank]

15. What type of degree are your pursuing?

a. GED or high school

b. Four-year college degree

c. Community college degree

d. Vocational or technical degree

e. Post-college degree/ Graduate school

f. Other. Fill in the blank:

The Marianismo Beliefs Scale (MBS) (Castillo et al., 2010)[5]

1. Rank the following items in terms of HOW IMPORTANT each item is in terms of your IDEAL female partner in a close relationship (dating, living together, or married). Circle ONE number for each scale (1 to 7)

Note: Response options will range from 1-Very unimportant to 7-Very important as shown below. Items will be interspersed. Names of subscales will not be in questionnaire.

Very Unimportant 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very Important.

1. Family Pillar.

1. My IDEAL female partner would be a source of strength for the family.
2. My IDEAL female partner would be considered the main source of strength of the family.
3. My IDEAL female partner would keep the family unified.
4. My IDEAL female partner would teach their children to be loyal to the family.
5. My IDEAL female partner would do things that make the family happy.

2. ***Virtuous and chaste***

1. My IDEAL female partner would remain a virgin until marriage.
2. My IDEAL female partner would wait until after marriage to have children.
3. My IDEAL female partner would be pure.
4. My IDEAL female partner would adopt the values taught by her religion.

[5] This measure has been modified by combining it with Fletcher and colleagues' (1999) measure. See method section for more detail.

5. My IDEAL female partner would be faithful to me.

3. ***Subordinate to others***

1. My IDEAL female partner would satisfy my sexual needs without argument.
2. My IDEAL female partner would not speak out against men.
3. My IDEAL female partner would respect men's opinions even when she does not agree.
4. My IDEAL female partner would avoid saying no to people.
5. My IDEAL female partner would do anything a male in the family asks her to do.

4. ***Silencing self to maintain harmony***

1. My IDEAL female partner would not discuss birth control.
2. My IDEAL female partner would not express her needs to her partner.
3. My IDEAL female partner would feel guilty about telling people what she needs.
4. My IDEAL female partner would not talk about sex.
5. My IDEAL female partner would be forgiving in all aspects.
6. My IDEAL female partner would always be agreeable to men's decisions.

5. ***Spiritual pillar***

1. My IDEAL female partner would be the spiritual leader of the family
2. My IDEAL female partner would be responsible for taking the family to religious services.
3. My IDEAL female partner would be responsible for the spiritual growth of the family.

2. Rank the following items in terms of the extent to which each item ACCURATELY DESCRIBES your CURRENT (actual) female partner (dating, living together, or married). Circle ONE number for each scale (1 to 7)

Note. Response options will range from 1-Strongly Disagree to 7-Strongly Agree as shown below. Items will be interspersed. Names of subscales will not be in questionnaire.

Strongly Disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly Agree

1. Family Pillar.

1. My CURRENT partner is a source of strength for the family.
2. My CURRENT partner is considered the main source of strength of the family.
3. My CURRENT partner keeps the family unified.
4. My CURRENT partner teaches the children to be loyal to the family. if you do not have children, do not answer
5. My CURRENT partner does things that make the family happy.

2. Virtuous and chaste

1. My CURRENT partner remains(ed) a virgin until marriage.
2. My CURRENT partner waits(ed) until after marriage to have children.
3. My CURRENT partner is pure.
4. My CURRENT partner adopts the values taught by her religion.
5. My CURRENT partner is faithful to me.

3. Subordinate to others

1. My CURRENT partner satisfies my sexual needs without argument.

2. My CURRENT partner does not speak out against men.
3. My CURRENT partner respects men's opinions even when she does not agree.
4. My CURRENT partner avoids saying no to people.
5. My CURRENT partner does anything a male in the family asks her to do.

4. Silencing self to maintain harmony

1. My CURRENT partner does not discuss birth control.
2. My CURRENT partner does not express her needs to me.
3. My CURRENT partner feels guilty about telling people what she needs.
4. My CURRENT partner does not talk about sex.
5. My CURRENT partner is forgiving in all aspects.
6. My CURRENT partner is always agreeable to men's decisions.

5. Spiritual pillar

1. My CURRENT partner is the spiritual leader of the family
2. My CURRENT partner is responsible for taking the family to religious services.
3. My CURRENT partner is responsible for the spiritual growth of the family.

The Traditional Machismo and *Caballerismo* ***Scale (Arciniegas et al., 2008)***

1. The following are some statements that reflect opinions on a wide range of topics. WE WANT TO KNOW YOUR OPINION. We understand that in different situations different responses may be appropriate, but please respond to each statement to the best of your ability. Please tell me for each statement whether YOU 1. Very strongly

disagree; 2 Disagree; 3 Disagree Somewhat; 4 Uncertain; 5. Agree Somewhat; 6 Agree; 7 Very Strongly Agree.

Note. Items will be interspersed. Names of subscales will not be in questionnaire.

1. Machismo

1. Men are superior to women.
2. In a family, a father's wish is law.
3. The birth of a male child is more important than a female child.
4. It is important not to be the weakest man in a group.
5. Real men never let down their guard.
6. It would be shameful for a man to cry in front of his children.
7. A man should be in control of his wife.
8. It is necessary to fight when challenged.
9. It is important for women to be beautiful.
10. The bills (electric, phone, etc.) should be in the man's name.

2. *Caballerismo*

1. Men must display good manners in public.
2. Men should be affectionate with their children.
3. Men should respect their elders.
4. A woman is expected to be loyal to her husband.
5. Men must exhibit fairness in all situations.
6. Men should be willing to fight to defend their family.
7. The family is more important than the individual.
8. Men hold their mothers in high regard.

9. A real man does not brag about sex.
10. Men want their children to have better lives than themselves.

2. The following are some statements that reflect opinions on a wide range of topics. We understand that in different situations different responses may be appropriate, but please respond to each statement to the best of your ability. What do you think YOUR PARTNER'S OPINION is for the following statements? Please tell us for each statement whether YOUR PARTNER 1. Very strongly disagrees; 2 Disagrees; 3 Disagrees Somewhat; 4 Uncertain; 5. Agrees Somewhat; 6 Agrees; 7 Very Strongly Agrees.

Note. Items will be interspersed. Names of subscales will not be in questionnaire.

1. Machismo

1. I think my partner believes that men are superior to women.
2. I think my partner believes that in a family, a father's wish is law.
3. I think my partner believes that the birth of a male child is more important than a female child.
4. I think my partner believes that for a man it is important not to be the weakest man in a group.
5. I think my partner believes that real men never let down their guard.
6. I think my partner believes that it would be shameful for a man to cry in front of his children.
7. I think my partner believes that a man should be in control of his wife.
8. I think my partner believes that for a man it is necessary to fight when challenged.

9. I think my partner believes that it is important for women to be beautiful.
10. I think my partner believes that the bills (electric, phone, etc.) should be in the man's name.

2. *Caballerismo*

11. I think my partner believes that men must display good manners in public.
12. I think my partner believes that men should be affectionate with their children.
13. I think my partner believes that men should respect their elders.
14. I think my partner believes that a woman is expected to be loyal to her husband.
15. I think my partner believes that men must exhibit fairness in all situations.
16. I think my partner believes that men should be willing to fight to defend their family.
17. I think my partner believes that the family is more important than the individual.
18. I think my partner believes that men hold their mothers in high regard.
19. I think my partner believes that a real man does not brag about sex.
20. I think my partner believes that men want their children to have better lives than themselves.

The Conflict Tactics Scale-2 (Straus et al., 1996)

No matter how well a couple gets along, there are times when they disagree, get annoyed with one another, want different things from each other, or just have spats or fights because they are in a bad mood, are tired, or are upset for some other reason. Couples also have many different ways of trying to settle their differences. Some questions are about you and others are about your partner. Please choose the response

that describes how many times these things have happened with a female partner in the **PAST YEAR.**

Note: The Negotiation items are fillers and will not be used for analyses. Items below are presented as it they will be presented to participants, and this order is based on the scale developers' instructions. The same items are presented grouped by subscale for the reader's ease.

How often did this happen?

0 = This never happened in the past year

1 = Once in the past year

2 = Twice in the past year

3 = 3-5 times in the past year

4 = 6-10 times in the past year

5 = 11-20 times in the past year

6 = More than 20 times in the past year

7 = Not in the past year, but it did happen before

1. I showed my partner I care even though we disagreed *[Negotiation]*
2. I explained my side of a disagreement to my partner *[Negotiation]*
3. I insulted or swore at my partner. *[Psychological Aggression]*
4. I threw something at my partner that could hurt. *[Physical Assault]*
5. I twisted my partner's hair. *[Physical Assault]*
6. I showed respect for my partner's feelings about an issue *[Negotiation]*
7. I made my partner have sex without a condom. *[Sexual Coercion]*

8. I pushed or shoved my partner. *[Physical Assault]*

9. I used force (like hitting, holding down or using a weapon) to make my partner have oral or anal sex. *[Sexual Coercion]*

10. I used a knife or gun on my partner. *[Physical Assault]*

11. I called my partner fat or ugly. *[Psychological Aggression]*

12. I punched or hit my partner with something that could hurt. *[Physical Assault]*

13. I destroyed something that belonged to my partner. *[Psychological Aggression]*

14. I choked my partner. *[Physical Assault]*

15. I shouted or yelled at my partner. *[Psychological Aggression]*

16. I slammed my partner against a wall. *[Physical Assault]*

17. I said I was sure we could work out a problem *[Negotiation]*

18. I beat up my partner. *[Physical Assault]*

19. I grabbed my partner. *[Physical Assault]*

20. I used force (like hitting, holding down, or using a weapon) to make my partner have sex. *[Sexual Coercion]*

21. I stomped out of the room or house or yard during a disagreement. *[Psychological Aggression]*

22. I insisted on sex when my partner did not want to (but did not use physical force). *[Sexual Coercion]*

23. I slapped my partner. *[Physical Assault]*

24. I used threats to make my partner have oral or anal sex. *[Sexual Coercion]*

25. I suggested a compromise to a disagreement *[Negotiation]*

26. I burned or scalded my partner on purpose. *[Physical Assault]*

27. I insisted my partner have oral or anal sex (but did not use physical force). *[Sexual Coercion]*
28. I accused my partner of being a lousy lover. *[Psychological Aggression]*
29. I did something to spite my partner. *[Psychological Aggression]*
30. I threatened to hit or throw something at my partner. *[Psychological Aggression]*
31. I kicked my partner. *[Physical Assault]*
32. I used threats to make my partner have sex. *[Sexual Coercion]*
33. I agreed to a solution to a disagreement my partner suggested. *[Negotiation]*

The items below are the same as above but presented in subscales for ease to review them.

Physical Assault

1. I threw something at my partner that could hurt. *[Physical Assault]*
2. I twisted my partner's arm. *[Physical Assault]*
3. I pushed or shoved my partner. *[Physical Assault]*
4. I used a knife or gun on my partner. *[Physical Assault]*
5. I punched or hit my partner with something that could hurt. *[Physical Assault]*
6. I choked my partner. *[Physical Assault]*
7. I slammed my partner against a wall. *[Physical Assault]*
8. I beat up my partner. *[Physical Assault]*
9. I grabbed my partner. *[Physical Assault]*
10. I slapped my partner. *[Physical Assault]*
11. I burned or scalded my partner on purpose. *[Physical Assault]*
12. I kicked my partner. *[Physical Assault]*

Psychological Aggression

1. I insulted or swore at my partner. *[Psychological Aggression]*
2. I called my partner fat or ugly. *[Psychological Aggression]*
3. I destroyed something that belonged to my partner. *[Psychological Aggression]*
4. I shouted or yelled at my partner. *[Psychological Aggression]*
5. I stomped out of the room or house or yard during a disagreement. *[Psychological Aggression]*
6. I accused my partner of being a lousy lover. *[Psychological Aggression]*
7. I did something to spite my partner. *[Psychological Aggression]*
8. I threatened to hit or throw something at my partner. *[Psychological Aggression]*

Sexual Coercion

1. I made my partner have sex without a condom. *[Sexual Coercion]*
2. I used force (like hitting, holding down or using a weapon) to make my partner have oral or anal sex. *[Sexual Coercion]*
3. I used force (like hitting, holding down, or using a weapon) to make my partner have sex. *[Sexual Coercion]*
4. I insisted on sex when my partner did not want to (but did not use physical force). *[Sexual Coercion]*
5. I used threats to make my partner have oral or anal sex. *[Sexual Coercion]*
6. I insisted my partner have oral or anal sex (but did not use physical force). *[Sexual Coercion]*
7. I used threats to make my partner have sex. *[Sexual Coercion]*

Negotiation (filler items)

1. I showed my partner I care even though we disagreed *[Negotiation]*
2. I explained my side of a disagreement to my partner *[Negotiation]*
3. I showed respect for my partner's feelings about an issue *[Negotiation]*
4. I said I was sure we could work out a problem *[Negotiation]*
5. I suggested a compromise to a disagreement *[Negotiation]*
6. I agreed to a solution to a disagreement my partner suggested. *[Negotiation]*

The Dyadic Satisfaction subscale from the **Dyadic Adjustment Scale (DAS) (Spanier, 1976)**

Most persons have disagreements in their relationships. Please indicate below the approximate extent of agreement or disagreement between you and your partner for each item.

0- Never, 1 – Rarely, 2 - Occasionally, 3 - More often than not, 4 - Most of the time, 5- All the time.

1. How often do you discuss or have you considered divorce, separation, or terminating your relationship?
2. How often do you or your partner leave the house after a fight?
3. In general, how often do you think that things between you and your partner are going well?
4. Do you confide in your partner?
5. Do you ever regret that you married or lived together?
6. How often do you and your partner quarrel?
7. How often do you and your partner "get on each other's nerves?"

Additional Items

1. Does your wife/partner work?
    1. Yes
    2. No
2. Does it bother you that your wife/partner works?
    1. Yes
    2. No
3. Does your wife/partner make more money than you?
    1. Yes
    2. No
    3. N/A. She does not work
4. Does your wife/partner make dinner every night?
    1. Yes
    2. No
5. Does your wife/partner have primary responsibility for taking care of the children?
    1. Yes
    2. No
    3. Do not have children
6. Does your wife/partner challenge your authority?
    1. Yes
    2. No

7. Does your wife/partner do things that make you feel like less of a man, if so, what are these things?
    1. Yes [Fill in the blank]
    2. No

Data Quality Items

1. We recognize that there are many factors that impact how someone responds to questionnaires such as this. It is helpful for us to have a sense of how accurate your responses to the questions in this survey were. Is there any reason that we should not include your data in our analyses? For example, careless responding, not being honest in your responses, or not answering accurately on the screening survey? Answering this question will NOT influence your payment.

a. You should include my responses in your analyses

b. You should NOT include my responses in your analyses

2. For this study, we are only interested in collecting data on men who identify as Latino, Latinx, or Hispanic? Should we include your responses?

a. You should include my responses in your analyses

b. You should NOT include my responses in your analyses

c.

Feedback Item

1. Please tell us your thoughts and general reactions to this survey.

[Fill in the blank].

APPENDIX D

POWER ANALYSIS

IPV with low response rate (non-normal)

If IPV subscales were coded as non-normal (potentially coded as dichotomous), a logistic regressions will be used to evaluated in Model. 1)To study the effect of the of ideal-perceived discrepancy scores of *marianismo* subscales on IPV (sexual, physical, and psychological IPV); and 2) identify the mediating effect of relationship satisfaction on the relation between of perceived discrepancy scores of *marianismo* subscales and IPV Model 2: a logistic regression will be used to 1) study the effect of the *machismo* and *caballerismo* discrepancy scores on IPV (sexual, physical, and psychological IPV); and 2) identify the mediating effect of relationship satisfaction on the relation between *machismo* and *caballerismo* discrepancy scores and IPV.

Model 1: Assumptions of used in power analyses:

The correlation between ideal-perceived discrepancy *marianismo* subscale scores and relationship satisfaction is assumed to be moderate $r = .3$ based on similar studies. Falconier (2013) found $r = .25$ in a measure of gender role discrepancy and men's relationship satisfaction in a sample of Latinos; Lye and Biblarz (1993) used various measures of gender role attitudes and marital satisfaction and found that endorsement of traditional gender role attitudes measures were linked to lower relationship satisfaction for men with correlations ranging from $r = .05$ to .44; for this analysis $r = .3$ was used as

middle point and based on Falconier's (2013) study as the measure and sample is more similar to the present study

The correlation between gender role discrepancy and IPV perpetration was assumed to *r*= .3. Falconier found that gender role discrepancy was associated with psychological IPV perpetration *r* = 0.32. (I wonder if I should be more conservative with this estimate, some articles have found *r* =0.12 MGRS Masculine Gender Role Stress Scale and CTS Jakupcak et al., 2002).

Falconier found that relationship satisfaction was associated with psychological IPV perpetration *r* = 0.57, and meta-analyses show medium effect sizes for the relation of relationship dissatisfaction and male perpetration of IPV (*r* = .28 and *r* =.29) (Stith et al., 2004). For the current analyses, the association between relationship satisfaction and IPV perpetration was assumed to be also of *r* = 0.40.

Lastly, it was assumed that the outcome variable, IPV, would be endorsed by 10% of participants. A study with a sample that was 41.8% Latinos, reported that 30.1% of participants had perpetrated IPV in the past year when asked using the 12 physical abuse items from the Revised CTS. Another study using a single item to assess IPV perpetration ("How many times during the past 12 months did you hit or threaten to hit your spouse or partner?") reported that 6.1% of Latino male participants endorsed the item (Cunradi, 2009). Lastly, in a different sample of predominantly Latino men (74.9% Hispanic and 21.9% Black), IPV was assessed using CTS-2, and found that 41.3% reported IPV perpetration in the past year, including 27.6% reporting physical IPV

perpetration; 28.3% sexual IPV and 13.8% perpetration of IPV-related injury or need for medical services.

Based on the assumed correlations, in order to identify a mediation effect with power of 80%, a sample of **n=320** participants is needed.

APPENDIX E

NON-SIGNIFICANT MEDIATIONAL ANALYSES

Models – Main Analyses

In the appendix the models where there was not a significant mediation effect between ideal-partner discrepancy and CTS-2 outcomes are reported. Additionally, models where there was not a significant mediation effect between discrepancy of own and partner endorsement of *Machismo* and CST-2 outcomes are reported. Lastly, models where there was not a significant mediation effect between discrepancy of own and partner endorsement of *Caballerismo* and CST-2 outcomes are reported also reported in this document.

The variables age, relationship type, being a student and having a Latina partner were entered as covariates in the model. Results of all models will present unstandardized regression coefficient, *SE*, and C.I.s based on bootstrapped results. Values for *p, z,* and *t*, are not produced by the bootstrap procedure and are based on non-bootstrapped output.

Model 1 – *Marianismo* Beliefs Scale Discrepancies.

Positive Discrepancies of Marianismo Beliefs Subscales.

Family Pillar and CTS-2 physical aggression. The results of this model show that discrepancy score of Family Pillar did not have a direct effect on Relationship Satisfaction (b_1 = -.1655, *SE* = 0.1077, *t* = -1.6689; *p* > .05; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-0.3767, 0.0492]). Relationship Satisfaction had a direct effect on CTS-2 physical

aggression (b_2 = -1.0172, *SE* = 0.2402, *z* = -4.8325; *p* < .001; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-1.6019, -0.6456]), but discrepancy score of Family Pillar had no direct effect on CTS-2 physical aggression (b_1 = .1641, *SE* = .3068, *z* = .6563; *p* > 0.05; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-.4510, .7429]). Results show that there is not an indirect effect of Family Pillar discrepancy on CTS-2 physical aggression through Relationship Satisfaction (*b* = .1684, *SE* = .1201; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-0.0532, 0.4304]). The results of this model do not support the hypotheses presented in Model 1.

Family Pillar and CTS-2 psychological aggression. The results of this model show that discrepancy score of Family Pillar did not have a direct effect on Relationship Satisfaction (b_1 = --.1655, *SE* = 0.1066, *t* = - 1.6689; *p* > .05; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-0.3672, 0.0516]). Relationship Satisfaction had a direct effect on CTS-2 psychological aggression (b_2 = -1.0312, *SE* = .3723, *z* = -3.8816; *p* < .001; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-1.9715, -.5100]), but discrepancy score of Family Pillar had no direct effect on CTS-2 psychological aggression (b_1 = .3451 , *SE* = .3441, *z* = 1.1214; *p* > 0.05; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-.2626, 1.1013]). Results show that there is not an indirect effect of Family Pillar discrepancy on CTS-2 psychological aggression through Relationship Satisfaction (*b* = .1707, *SE* = .1453; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-0.0524, 0.5178]). The results of this model do not support the hypotheses presented in Model 1.

Family Pillar and CTS-2 sexual aggression. The results of this model show that discrepancy score of Family Pillar did not have a direct effect on Relationship Satisfaction (b_1 = --.1655, *SE* = 0.1066, *t* = - 1.6689; *p* > .05; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-0.3672, 0.0516]). Relationship Satisfaction had a direct effect on CTS-2 sexual aggression (b_2 = -.9559, *SE* = .2527, *z* = -4.3139; *p* < .001; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-

1.5547, -0.5710]), but discrepancy score of Family Pillar had no direct effect on CTS-2 sexual aggression (b_1 = .0970, *SE* = .2570, *z* = 0.3833; *p* > 0.05; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-0.4280, 0.5840]). Results show that there is not an indirect effect of Family Pillar discrepancy on CTS-2 sexual aggression through Relationship Satisfaction (*b* = .1582, *SE* = .1219; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-0.0456, 0.4415]). The results of this model do not support the hypotheses presented in Model 1.

Self-Silencing and CTS-2 physical aggression. The results of this model show that discrepancy score of Self-Silencing did not have a direct effect on Relationship Satisfaction (b_1 = -.0794, *SE* = .01308, *t* = -0.6259; *p* > .05; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-0.3227, 0.1994]). Relationship Satisfaction had a direct effect on CTS-2 physical aggression (b_2 = -1.3640, *SE* = .3286, *z* = - 4.9841; *p* < .001; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-2.2118, -0.9237]), but discrepancy score of Self-Silencing had no direct effect on CTS-2 physical aggression (b_1 = .5714, *SE* = .3935, *z* = 1.7017; *p* > 0.05; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-0.0669, 1.4913]). Results show that there is not an indirect effect of Self-Silencing discrepancy on CTS-2 physical aggression through Relationship Satisfaction (*b* = .1083, *SE* = .1954; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-0.3029, 0.4768]). The results of this model do not support the hypotheses presented in Model 1.

Self-Silencing and CTS-2 psychological aggression. The results of this model show that discrepancy score of Self-Silencing did not have a direct effect on Relationship Satisfaction (b_1 = -.0794, *SE* = 0.1340, *t* = -0.6259; *p* > .05; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-0.3273, 0.2023]). Relationship Satisfaction had a direct effect on CTS-2 psychological aggression (b_2 = -1.6902, *SE* = 0.5522, *z* = -4.4309; *p* < .001; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-3.1451, -0.9695]), but discrepancy score of Self-Silencing had no direct effect on CTS-2

psychological aggression (b_1 = .6331, *SE* = .4234, z = 1.4271; $p > 0.05$; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-0.0812, 1.5861]). Results show that there is not an indirect effect of Self-Silencing discrepancy on CTS-2 psychological aggression through Relationship Satisfaction (b = .1342, *SE* = .2680; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-0.3806, 0.6989]). The results of this model do not support the hypotheses presented in Model 1.

Self-Silencing and CTS-2 sexual aggression. The results of this model show that discrepancy score of Self-Silencing did not have a direct effect on Relationship Satisfaction (b_1 = -.0794, *SE* = 0.1320, t = -0.6259; $p > .05$; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-0.3123, 0.2075]). Relationship Satisfaction had a direct effect on CTS-2 sexual aggression (b_2 = -.9453, *SE* = .2836, z = -4.3139; $p < .001$; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-1.6467, -0.5293]), but discrepancy score of Self-Silencing had no direct effect on CTS-2 sexual aggression (b_1 = .0881, *SE* = .3665, z = .2809; $p > 0.05$; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-0.6014, 0.8756]). Results show that there is not an indirect effect of Self-Silencing discrepancy on CTS-2 sexual aggression through Relationship Satisfaction (b = .0751, *SE* = 0.1420; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-0.2091, 0.3582]). The results of this model do not support the hypotheses presented in Model 1.

Spiritual Pillar and CTS-2 physical aggression. The results of this model show that discrepancy score of Spiritual Pillar did not have a direct effect on Relationship Satisfaction (b_1 = -.1311, *SE* = .0784, t = -1.7980; $p > .05$; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.*[-0.2887, 0.0176]). Relationship Satisfaction had a direct effect on CTS-2 physical aggression (b_2 = -1.1989, *SE* = .2485, z = -5.4485; $p < .001$; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-1.8046, -0.8246]), discrepancy score of Spiritual Pillar had a direct effect on CTS-2 physical aggression (b_1 =.4379, *SE* = .2262, z = 2.0726; $p < 0.05$; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.*

[0.0426, 0.9535]). Results show that there is not an indirect effect of Spiritual Pillar discrepancy on CTS-2 physical aggression through Relationship Satisfaction (b = .1572, SE = .1030; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-0.0241, 0.3863]). The results of this model do not support the hypotheses presented in Model 1.

Spiritual Pillar and CTS-2 psychological aggression. The results of this model show that discrepancy score of Spiritual Pillar did not have a direct effect on Relationship Satisfaction (b_1 = -.1334, SE = 0.0793, t = -1.8327; p > .05; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-0.2916, 0.0264]). Relationship Satisfaction had a direct effect on CTS-2 psychological aggression (b_2 = -1.2602, SE = .3683, z = -4.5391; p < .001; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-2.2276, -0.7459]), but discrepancy score of Spiritual Pillar had no direct effect on CTS-2 psychological aggression (b_1 = .2021, SE = 0.2608, z = 0.8303; p > 0.05; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-0.2575, 0.7884]). Results show that there is not an indirect effect of Spiritual Pillar discrepancy on CTS-2 psychological aggression through Relationship Satisfaction (b = .1681, SE = .1264; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-0.0329, 0.4792]). The results of this model do not support the hypotheses presented in Model 1.

Spiritual Pillar and CTS-2 sexual aggression. The results of this model show that discrepancy score of Spiritual Pillar did not have a direct effect on Relationship Satisfaction (b_1 = -.1334, SE = .0795, t = -1.8327; p > .05; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-0.2922, .0215]). Relationship Satisfaction had a direct effect on CTS-2 sexual aggression (b_2 = -.9040, SE = .2141, z = -4.4740; p < .001; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [1.4052, -0.5732]), but discrepancy score of Spiritual Pillar had no direct effect on CTS-2 sexual aggression (b_1 = .2083, SE = .2077, z = 1.0646; p > 0.05; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-0.1703, 0.6575]). Results show that there is not an indirect effect of Spiritual Pillar

discrepancy on CTS-2 sexual aggression through Relationship Satisfaction (b =.1206, SE = .0829; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-0.0191, 0.3057]). The results of this model do not support the hypotheses presented in Model 1.

Negative Discrepancies of Marianismo Beliefs Subscales.

Family Pillar and CTS-2 physical aggression. The results of this model show that discrepancy score of Family Pillar did not have a direct effect on Relationship Satisfaction (b_1 = -.1490, SE = .1341, t = 1.2612; p > .05; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-0.1193, 0.4126]). Relationship Satisfaction had a direct effect on CTS-2 physical aggression (b_2 = - .8811, SE = 0.2591, z = -3.8727; p < .001; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-1.4875, -0.4714]), but discrepancy score of Family Pillar had no direct effect on CTS-2 physical aggression (b_1 = -.2885, SE = .4553, z = -.7364; p > 0.05; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-1.3821, 0.4492]). Results show that there is not an indirect effect of Family Pillar discrepancy on CTS-2 physical aggression through Relationship Satisfaction (b = -.1313, SE = .1381; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [- 0.4455, 0.1167]). The results of this model do not support the hypotheses presented in Model 1.

Family Pillar and CTS-2 psychological aggression. The results of this model show that discrepancy score of Family Pillar did not have a direct effect on Relationship Satisfaction (b_1 = -.1473, SE = .1350, t = 1.2487; p > .05; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-0.1274, 0.4150]). Relationship Satisfaction had a direct effect on CTS-2 psychological aggression (b_2 = -.6817, SE = .3308, z = -2.8474; p < .05; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-1.5039, - 0.2010]), but discrepancy score of Family Pillar had no direct effect on CTS-2 psychological aggression (b_1 = .0191, SE = .3593, z = .0632; p > 0.05; 95% boot-

strapped *C.I.* [-0.6500, 0.8016]). Results show that there is not an indirect effect of Family Pillar discrepancy on CTS-2 psychological aggression through Relationship Satisfaction (b = - .1004, SE = .1226; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-0.3949, 0.0918]). The results of this model do not support the hypotheses presented in Model 1.

Family Pillar and CTS-2 sexual aggression. The results of this model show that discrepancy score of Family Pillar did not have a direct effect on Relationship Satisfaction (b_1 = .1473, SE = .1331, t = 1.2487; p > .05; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-0.1122, 0.4188]). Relationship Satisfaction had a direct effect on CTS-2 sexual aggression (b_2 = -.4722, SE = 0.2258, z = 2.3504; p < .05; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-0.9526, -0.0628]), but discrepancy score of Family Pillar had no direct effect on CTS-2 sexual aggression (b_1 = .0557, SE = 0.3783, z = 0.1895; p > 0.05; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-0.8041, 0.6996]). Results show that there is not an indirect effect of Family Pillar discrepancy on CTS-2 sexual aggression through Relationship Satisfaction (b = -.0695, SE = .0825; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-0.2682, 0.0565]). The results of this model do not support the hypotheses presented in Model 1.

Virtuous and Chaste and CTS-2 physical aggression. The results of this model show that discrepancy score of Virtuous and Chaste did not have a direct effect on Relationship Satisfaction (b_1 = -0.0438, SE = 0.1014, t = -.5026; p > .05; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-0.2423, 0.1497]). Relationship Satisfaction had a direct effect on CTS-2 physical aggression (b_2 = -1.1684, SE = 0.2561, z = -5.1172, p < .001; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-1.7925, -0.7965]), but discrepancy score of Virtuous and Chaste had no direct effect on CTS-2 physical aggression (b_1 = -.3751, SE = .3365, z = -1.3814; p > 0.05; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-1.1156, 0.2000]). Results show that there is not an indirect

effect of Virtuous and Chaste discrepancy on CTS-2 physical aggression through Relationship Satisfaction (b = .0512, SE = .1283; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-0.2135, 0.3020]). The results of this model do not support the hypotheses presented in Model 1.

Virtuous and Chaste and CTS-2 psychological aggression. The results of this model show that discrepancy score of Virtuous and Chaste did not have a direct effect on Relationship Satisfaction (b_1 = -.0400, SE = 0.1020, t = -.4603; p > .05; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-0.2409, 0.1519]). Relationship Satisfaction had a direct effect on CTS-2 psychological aggression (b_2 = -.9886, SE = .3332, z = -3.7643, p < .001; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-1.8551, -0.5240]), but discrepancy score of Virtuous and Chaste had no direct effect on CTS-2 psychological aggression (b_1 = -.1225, SE = 0.2457, z = -.5365; p > 0.05; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-0.6003, 0.3719]). Results show that there is not an indirect effect of Virtuous and Chaste discrepancy on CTS-2 psychological aggression through Relationship Satisfaction (b = .0395, SE = .1152; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-0.1814, 0.2873]). The results of this model do not support the hypotheses presented in Model 1.

Virtuous and Chaste and CTS-2 sexual aggression. The results of this model show that discrepancy score of Virtuous and Chaste did not have a direct effect on Relationship Satisfaction (b_1 = -.0676, SE = .1045, t = -.7597; p > .05; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-0.2734, 0.1371]). Relationship Satisfaction had a direct effect on CTS-2 sexual aggression (b_2 = -.7241, SE = .2212, z = -3.5498, p < .001; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-1.2222, -0.3490]), but discrepancy score of Virtuous and Chaste had no direct effect on CTS-2 sexual aggression (b_1 =.1235, SE = .2359, z = 0.5612; p > 0.05; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-0.3505, 0.5798]). Results show that there is not an indirect effect of

Virtuous and Chaste discrepancy on CTS-2 sexual aggression through Relationship Satisfaction (b = .0490, SE = .0847; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [- 0.1088, 0.2337]). The results of this model do not support the hypotheses presented in Model 1.

Subordinate to Others and CTS-2 physical aggression. The results of this model show that discrepancy score of Subordinate to Others did not have a direct effect on Relationship Satisfaction (b_1 = .1642, SE = .1321, t = 1.8014; p > .05; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [- 0.0914, 0.4150]). Relationship Satisfaction had a direct effect on CTS-2 physical aggression (b_2 = -.9170, SE = 0.2433, z = -4.2208, p < .001; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-1.5114, -0.5598]), but discrepancy score of Subordinate to Others had no direct effect on CTS-2 physical aggression (b_1 = -.2665, SE = .3487, z = -.9413; p > 0.05; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-0.9328, 0.4402]). Results show that there is not an indirect effect of Subordinate to Others discrepancy on CTS-2 physical aggression through Relationship Satisfaction (b = -.1506, SE = .1554; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-0.5191, 0.0760]). The results of this model do not support the hypotheses presented in Model 1.

Subordinate to Others and CTS-2 psychological aggression. The results of this model show that discrepancy score of Subordinate to Others did not have a direct effect on Relationship Satisfaction (b_1 = .1663, SE = .1286, t = 1.8286; p > .05; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-0.0853, 0.4109]). Relationship Satisfaction had a direct effect on CTS-2 psychological aggression (b_2 = -.8271, SE = .3821, z = -3.2294, p < .001; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-0.6439, 0.5884]), but discrepancy score of Subordinate to Others had no direct effect on CTS-2 psychological aggression (b_1 = -.0684, SE = 0.3164, z = -.2713; p > 0.05; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-0.6003, 0.3719]). Results show that there is not an indirect effect of Subordinate to Others discrepancy on CTS-2 psychological aggression

through Relationship Satisfaction (b = -.1375, SE = .1572; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-0.5482, 0.0534]). The results of this model do not support the hypotheses presented in Model 1.

Subordinate to Others and CTS-2 sexual aggression. The results of this model show that discrepancy score of Subordinate to Others did not have a direct effect on Relationship Satisfaction (b_1 = .1551, SE = .1313, t = 1.6912; p > .05; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-0.1009, 0.4063]). Relationship Satisfaction had a direct effect on CTS-2 sexual aggression (b_2 = -.5662, SE = .2186, z = -2.7517, p < .05; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-1.0584, -0.1971]), but discrepancy score of Subordinate to Others had no direct effect on CTS-2 sexual aggression (b_1 = -.4453, SE = .2757, z = -1.7560; p > 0.05; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-1.0022, 0.0925]). Results show that there is not an indirect effect of Subordinate to Others discrepancy on CTS-2 sexual aggression through Relationship Satisfaction (b =-.0878, SE = .099; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-0.3364, 0.0484]). The results of this model do not support the hypotheses presented in Model 1.

Self-Silencing and CTS-2 physical aggression. The results of this model show that discrepancy score of Self-Silencing did not have a direct effect on Relationship Satisfaction (b_1 = .0871, SE = .0864, t = 1.0121; p > .05; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-0.0881, 0.2540]). Relationship Satisfaction had a direct effect on CTS-2 physical aggression (b_2 = -.8969, SE = .2409, z = -4.3346; p < .001; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-1.4782, -0.5202]), but discrepancy score of Self-Silencing had no direct effect on CTS-2 physical aggression (b_1 = .3347, SE = .2889, z = 1.3493; p > 0.05; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-0.2252, 0.9076]). Results show that there is not an indirect effect of Self-Silencing discrepancy on CTS-2 physical aggression through Relationship Satisfaction (b = -.0781,

SE = .0903; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-0.2862, 0.0702]). The results of this model do not support the hypotheses presented in Model 1.

Self-Silencing and CTS-2 psychological aggression. The results of this model show that discrepancy score of Self-Silencing did not have a direct effect on Relationship Satisfaction (b_1 = .0871, *SE* = 0.0853, *t* = 1.0121; *p* > .05; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-0.0830, 0.2570]). Relationship Satisfaction had a direct effect on CTS-2 psychological aggression (b_2 = -.8024, *SE* = 0.3147, *z* = -3.4713; *p* < .001; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-1.5896, -0.3457]), but discrepancy score of Self-Silencing had no direct effect on CTS-2 psychological aggression (b_1 = .2001, *SE* = .2424, *z* = .8596; *p* > 0.05; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-0.2241, 0.7255]). Results show that there is not an indirect effect of Self-Silencing discrepancy on CTS-2 psychological aggression through Relationship Satisfaction (*b* = -.0699, *SE* = .0863; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-0.2828, 0.0593]). The results of this model do not support the hypotheses presented in Model 1.

Self-Silencing and CTS-2 sexual aggression. The results of this model show that discrepancy score of Self-Silencing did not have a direct effect on Relationship Satisfaction (b_1 = .0766, *SE* = 0.0857, *t* = .8863; *p* > .05; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-0.0901, 0.2397]). Relationship Satisfaction had a direct effect on CTS-2 sexual aggression (b_2 = -.5607, *SE* = .2054, *z* = -2.9695; *p* < .05; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-1.0111, -0.2071]), but discrepancy score of Self-Silencing had no direct effect on CTS-2 sexual aggression (b_1 = -.0621, *SE* = .2478, *z* = -.2700; *p* > 0.05; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-0.5842,0.4101]). Results show that there is not an indirect effect of Self-Silencing discrepancy on CTS-2 sexual aggression through Relationship Satisfaction (*b* = -.0430,

SE = 0.0584; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-0.1832, 0.0478]). The results of this model do not support the hypotheses presented in Model 1.

Spiritual Pillar and CTS-2 physical aggression. The results of this model show that discrepancy score of Spiritual Pillar did not have a direct effect on Relationship Satisfaction (b_1 = .0149, *SE* = .0798, *t* = .2174; *p* > .05; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.*[-0.1346, 0.1809]). Relationship Satisfaction had a direct effect on CTS-2 physical aggression (b_2 = -.8529, *SE* = .2340, *z* = -3.7867; *p* < .001; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-1.3691, -0.4412]), discrepancy score of Spiritual Pillar had direct effect on CTS-2 physical aggression (b_1 = -.5022, *SE* = .2140, *z* = -1.7867; *p* > 0.05; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-0.9729, -0.1167]). Results show that there is not an indirect effect of Spiritual Pillar discrepancy on CTS-2 physical aggression through Relationship Satisfaction (*b* = -.0127, *SE* = .0747; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-0.1906, 0.1073]). The results of this model do not support the hypotheses presented in Model 1.

Spiritual Pillar and CTS-2 psychological aggression. The results of this model show that discrepancy score of Spiritual Pillar did not have a direct effect on Relationship Satisfaction (b_1 = .0128, *SE* = 0.0783, *t* = .1868; *p* > .05; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-0.1262, 0.1815]). Relationship Satisfaction had a direct effect on CTS-2 psychological aggression (b_2 = -.8904, *SE* = .3532, *z* = -3.5231; *p* < .001; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-1.7641, -0.3782]), but discrepancy score of Spiritual Pillar had no direct effect on CTS-2 psychological aggression (b_1 = -.0217, *SE* = .2157, *z* = -.1196; *p* > 0.05; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-0.4322, 0.4311]). Results show that there is not an indirect effect of Spiritual Pillar discrepancy on CTS-2 psychological aggression through Relationship

Satisfaction (b = -.0114, SE = .0850; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-0.2373, 0.1042]). The results of this model do not support the hypotheses presented in Model 1.

Spiritual Pillar and CTS-2 sexual aggression. The results of this model show that discrepancy score of Spiritual Pillar did not have a direct effect on Relationship Satisfaction (b_1 = .0055, SE = .0777, t = .0801; p > .05; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-0.1346, 0.1777]). Relationship Satisfaction had a direct effect on CTS-2 sexual aggression (b_2 = -.4709, SE = .2141, z = -2.3100; p < .05; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [- 0.9388, -0.0750]), but discrepancy score of Spiritual Pillar had no direct effect on CTS-2 sexual aggression (b_1 = -.3377, SE = .2206, z = -1.5482; p > 0.05; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-0.8173, 0.0678]). Results show that there is not an indirect effect of Spiritual Pillar discrepancy on CTS-2 sexual aggression through Relationship Satisfaction (b -.0026, SE = .0426; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-0.1107, 0.0634]). The results of this model do not support the hypotheses presented in Model 1.

Model 2 - *Machismo* and *Caballerismo*

Positive Discrepancies of Machismo

***Machismo* and CTS-2 physical aggression.** The results of this model show that discrepancy of *Machismo* did not have a direct effect on Relationship Satisfaction (b_1 = -.1025, SE = .1874, t = -.5930; p > .05; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-0.4906, 0.2462]). Relationship Satisfaction had a direct effect on CTS-2 physical aggression (b_2 = -.9091, SE = .2518, z = -4.2855; p < .001; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-1.5074, -0.5355]), discrepancy score of *Machismo* had direct effect on CTS-2 physical aggression (b_1 = -.0557, SE = .4626, z = -.1370; p > 0.05; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-1.0880, 0.7379]).

Results show that there is not an indirect effect of *Machismo* discrepancy on CTS-2 physical aggression through Relationship Satisfaction (b = .0932, SE = .1860; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-0.2423, 0.4943]). The results of this model do not support the hypotheses presented in Model 1.

***Machismo* and CTS-2 psychological aggression.** The results of this model show that discrepancy score of *Machismo* did not have a direct effect on Relationship Satisfaction (b_1 = -.0853, SE = .1886, t = -.4978; p > .05; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-0.4695, 0.2610]). Relationship Satisfaction had a direct effect on CTS-2 psychological aggression (b_2 = -.8252, SE = .3973, z = -3.0914; p < .01; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-1.8471, -0.2944]), but discrepancy score of *Machismo* had no direct effect on CTS-2 psychological aggression (b_1 = .4415, SE = .5899, z = .9615; p > 0.05; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-0.4551, 1.8850]). Results show that there is not an indirect effect of *Machismo* discrepancy on CTS-2 psychological aggression through Relationship Satisfaction (b = .0704, SE = .1925; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-0.2638 0.5293]). The results of this model do not support the hypotheses presented in Model 1.

***Machismo* and CTS-2 sexual aggression.** The results of this model show that discrepancy score of *Machismo* did not have a direct effect on Relationship Satisfaction (b_1 = -.0638, SE = .1910, t = -.3742; p > .05; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-0.4586, 0.2892]). Relationship Satisfaction had a direct effect on CTS-2 sexual aggression (b_2 = -.5288, SE = .2140, z = -2.7243; p < .05; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-0.9901, -0.1329]), but discrepancy score of *Machismo* had no direct effect on CTS-2 sexual aggression (b_1 = -.0357, SE = .2206, z = -.0957; p > 0.05; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-0.8580, 0.7934]). Results show that there is not an indirect effect of *Machismo* discrepancy on CTS-2

sexual aggression through Relationship Satisfaction (b = .0337, SE = .1109; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-0.1728, 0.2909]). The results of this model do not support the hypotheses presented in Model 1.

Negative Discrepancies of Machismo

***Machismo* and CTS-2 physical aggression.** The results of this model show that discrepancy of *Machismo* did not have a direct effect on Relationship Satisfaction (b_1 = .0503, SE = .0899, t = .5515; p > .05; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-0.1321, 0.2203]). Relationship Satisfaction had a direct effect on CTS-2 physical aggression (b_2 = -1.0109, SE = .2650, z = -4.3517; p < .001; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-1.6588, -0.6065]), discrepancy score of *Machismo* had direct effect on CTS-2 physical aggression (b_1 = -.0390, SE = .3457, z = -.1382; p > 0.05; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-0.7574, 0.6211]). Results show that there is not an indirect effect of *Machismo* discrepancy on CTS-2 physical aggression through Relationship Satisfaction (b = -.0509, SE = .1030; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-0.2580, 0.1464]). The results of this model do not support the hypotheses presented in Model 1.

***Machismo* and CTS-2 psychological aggression.** The results of this model show that discrepancy score of *Machismo* did not have a direct effect on Relationship Satisfaction (b_1 = .0503, SE = .0926, t = .5515; p > .05; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-0.1365, 0.2291]). Relationship Satisfaction had a direct effect on CTS-2 psychological aggression (b_2 = -1.3219, SE = .3444, z = -4.6080; p < .01; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-2.2026, -0.8334]), but discrepancy score of *Machismo* had no direct effect on CTS-2 psychological aggression (b_1 = -.0447, SE = .2846, z = -.1716; p > 0.05; 95% boot-

strapped *C.I.* [-0.6488, 0.4892]). Results show that there is not an indirect effect of *Machismo* discrepancy on CTS-2 psychological aggression through Relationship Satisfaction (b = -.0666, SE = .1378; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-0.3323, 0.2261]). The results of this model do not support the hypotheses presented in Model 1.

***Machismo* and CTS-2 sexual aggression.** The results of this model show that discrepancy score of *Machismo* did not have a direct effect on Relationship Satisfaction (b_1 = .0503, SE = .0915, t = .5515; p > .05; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-0.1333, 0.2297]). Relationship Satisfaction had a direct effect on CTS-2 sexual aggression (b_2 = -.9187, SE = .2592, z = -3.9376; p < .01; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [1.5315, -.5314]), but discrepancy score of *Machismo* had no direct effect on CTS-2 sexual aggression (b_1 = -.1945, SE = .3141, z = -.7280; p > 0.05; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-0.8755, 0.3443]). Results show that there is not an indirect effect of *Machismo* discrepancy on CTS-2 sexual aggression through Relationship Satisfaction (b = -.0463, SE = .0947; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-0.2363, 0.1501]). The results of this model do not support the hypotheses presented in Model 1.

Negative Discrepancies of Caballerismo

***Caballerismo* and CTS-2 physical aggression.** The results of this model show that discrepancy of *Caballerismo* did not have a direct effect on Relationship Satisfaction (b_1 = -.3566, SE = .1863, t = -1.6789; p > .05; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-0.7162, 0.0398]). Relationship Satisfaction had a direct effect on CTS-2 physical aggression (b_2 = -.9699, SE = .2603, z = -3.9929; p < .001; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-1.5795, -0.5577]), discrepancy score of *Caballerismo* had direct effect on CTS-2 physical aggression (b_1 = -

.1849, *SE* = .7736, *z* = -.3001; *p* > 0.05; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-2.2727,0.8190]). Results show that there is not an indirect effect of *Caballerismo* discrepancy on CTS-2 physical aggression through Relationship Satisfaction (*b* = .3459, *SE* = .2117; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-0.0387, 0.8141]). The results of this model do not support the hypotheses presented in Model 1.

***Caballerismo* and CTS-2 psychological aggression.** The results of this model show that discrepancy score of *Caballerismo* did not have a direct effect on Relationship Satisfaction (b_1 = -.3566, *SE* = .1891*t* = -1.6789; *p* > .05; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-0.7338, 0.0138]). Relationship Satisfaction had a direct effect on CTS-2 psychological aggression (b_2 = -1.7760, *SE* = .4758, *z* = -4.7322; *p* < .01; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-3.0138, -1.1732]), but discrepancy score of *Caballerismo* had no direct effect on CTS-2 psychological aggression (b_1 = 1.1510, *SE* = .9322, *z* = 1.3628; *p* > 0.05; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-0.2027, 3.5622]). Results show that there is not an indirect effect of *Caballerismo* discrepancy on CTS-2 psychological aggression through Relationship Satisfaction (*b* = .6333, *SE* = .4247; 95% boot-strapped *C.I.* [-0.0244, 1.6625]). The results of this model do not support the hypotheses presented in Model 1.